THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

DECEMBER, 1800.

Munimenta Antiqua; or, Observations on Antient Castles. Including Remarks on the whole Progress of Architecture, Ecclesiastical, as well as Military, in Great Britain: and on the corresponding Changes, in Manners, Laws, and Customs. Tending both to illustrate modern History: and to elucidate many interesting Passages in various antient classic Authors. By Edward King, Esq. F. R. S. and A. S. Vol. I. Folio. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Nicol.

WHATEVER may be the public opinion of this author's pious eccentricities in his attempts to illustrate the Scriptures, his papers on ancient castles, published in different numbers of the Archæologia, are favorable monuments of his skill in antiquities. We therefore took up the present work with considerable expectations of entertainment, though not a little surprised to find a vast folio entitled Vol. I. The idea of a second folio on such a subject struck us as the excess of prolixity. We leave our readers, therefore, to judge of our surprise on finding that the author, in his preface, promises no less than four similar volumes! As Mr. King is a religious man, we wish to remind him of the severe account that will hereafter be demanded of him who makes use of *idle words*; of which certainly no work ever presented a greater number than the publication before us. We shall, however, in the present instance consider the author merely as an antiquary; and in so doing we beg leave to remind him that one of the grand merits of his papers on ancient castles was their brevity, and that he could not more deplorably have disappointed the expectation of those who have hitherto been pleased with him than by this unexpected transition to the most diffuse and tedious prolixity.

The learned author, well aware that his papers on ancient castles have been well received, seems, on *this* account, principally to have extended that title to the present work: for the

first chapter alone, and indeed only a part of this chapter, has any connection with the subject of ancient castles. The remainder, or about nine-tenths of the whole volume, consists of repetitions of the visionary doctrines of Stukeley, Borlase, and others, concerning what are called druidic monuments, though there be no real ancient testimony concerning druidic monuments whatever. Nor is the word *munimenta* unobjectionable; for though in classical latinity *munimentum* imply a castle or fortification, yet as the greater part of Mr. King's book must refer to what are called the middle ages, he should have reflected that in the language of these times *munimentum* was employed to designate a deed, charter, or diploma; and that in consequence the learned world have a right to expect from the present title a collection of ancient charters, instead of a treatise on ancient buildings.

In attempting to convey to the reader some idea of this ponderous and eccentric volume, we shall commence with an extract from the preface.

'The beginning of our narration, and which is contained in this volume, relates solely to the earliest periods in Britain; before the invasion of the Romans. The days of primæval simplicity, and rudeness;—the days of druidism,—and of patriarchal manners.

'And here; with regard to such of the druidical structures as were indeed unquestionably temples; I have carefully avoided, as much as possible, the repeating, or interfering with what has been written, so much at large, by doctor Stukeley;—leaving the curious still to draw their own conclusions from his learned dissertations;—though it cannot but be observed, that in the course of this work, conclusions, even on different grounds, have led me very much to agree with him. My object, it will be found, has been to add, if possible, by fair observations, new and additional light to the interesting subject; by an investigation of circumstances, which had before escaped due notice.

'And in other points, with regard to Rowland, Borlase, and other able writers, to whom we are so much indebted, it will be found that I have, as much as possible, observed the same rule.

'The second volume, which has the plates already engraved, and is printing with all expedition, will relate to the works of the Romans in this island, and the improvements introduced by them;—to such works of the Britons as were imitations of Phœnician, and Syrian architecture, with which they were made acquainted by the traffickers for tin;—and to such as were mere imitations of Roman architecture;—and also to such as, in the more barbarous parts of the island, were only imitations of those imitations.

'The third volume, which is also ready for the press, will contain the history of what truly relates to the Saxon times.

'And the fourth, the hiſtory of the ſtrenuous efforts of Norman genius:—and of the preparations which their ſturdy, and violent endeavours were permitted to make for better times.

'As viewing the hiſtory of our country in this light, has opened a ſcene of wonder and delight; and carrying with it a full conviction of truth, though mixed with much novelty of ideas, to the mind of the author; it may perhaps become no leſs ſtriking, and intereſting to the minds of others.

'The world becomes, by this means, in the trueſt ſenſe, the great and ſplendid theatre, on which are diſplayed the wonders of divine wiſdom, and deſignation, bringing light out of darkneſs, and a ſpiritual world of created beings to maturity.

'But there are ſcenes; amidſt which we muſt proceed with cautious ſteps.

'In this firſt part, therefore, it may be obſerved, that there are circumſtances of particular ſuperſtitious obſervances, that are ſaid to have prevailed amongſt the druids, which yet are not detailed at length in theſe pages.

'And the reaſon is,—becauſe they do not relate to the peculiar object of theſe obſervations;—becauſe alſo of the uncertainty with regard to ſome of them, (many of the concluſions reſting on ſurmiſe;)—and becauſe they have been more than ſufficiently mentioned by others;—whilſt, at the ſame time, it is ſurely to be wiſhed, that a veil ſhould for ever be drawn over the foul and fooliſh abominations of horrible idolatry; wherever ſacred truth does not demand the naming of them.

'Such circumſtances are;—

'The account of the ſtately old tree, in the deep wood, with its branches lopped off; and having the two largeſt fixed expanding horizontally at top, ſo as to cauſe the whole to reſemble the form of a T.

'The uſe of the ideal device of the orbicular winged ſerpent;—ſo much correſponding with the idea of the wings, the orb, and the ſerpent, found amongſt the Egyptian hieroglyphics.

'The uſe alſo of the ideal device of the mundane egg.

'And the pretence concerning the anguinum, or ſerpent ſtone, ſometimes called the adder ſtone.

'The various kinds of luſtrations:

'The attention to the white horſe, and to the white bull.

'The veneration for the vervain, and other conſecrated graſſes;—which was perhaps only a dark initiation to ſome ſcience of botany, and medicine.

'The reverence for the creſcent moon.

'The hallowed, and unhallowed ſolemn turnings from eaſt to weſt, or from weſt to eaſt.

'The ſuppoſed dances of three groups; the one wheeling round in a circle, from the right hand to the left; and the other from the

left hand to the right; with the ſlow walk of the third round a central altar, at the ſame time.

'The ſuppoſed fire dances.

'The fires, or bealtine, lighted on the cairns, on May-eve:—and the double fires on May-day; between which they cauſed their men and beaſts to paſs, which were deſtined to be ſacrificed.

'And finally, the horrid magical rites of devoting their enemies; n deep groves, whoſe trees were ſprinkled, and reeking, with blood and gore.

'Barely to name ſuch deteſtable offences of dark ages, (from any enlarged narration of which, if ſuch had been poſſible, no good could be derived;) is more than ſufficient.

'And the more intereſting and ſafe purſuit, is to inveſtigate, by means of ſcattered remains of antient labour and architecture, and by means of ſcattered records, how, amidſt the deepeſt errors, uſeful exertions have yet been made;—and how the mind of man has been inſenſibly guided through the whole wondrous chain of events, from gloomy darkneſs, unto hope, and light.—How obſtinate prejudices have been overcome;—the bonds of habit broken;—and the fetters that held the human mind in ſuch ſad durance, by degrees looſened.

'This will be ſtill more the purport of what is propoſed to be printed in the ſucceeding volumes, than even of what is contained in this. But as, in this preſent volume, there has been occaſion both to refer to, and to fling ſome light upon, the hiſtorical part of the Holy Scriptures; and alſo upon ſeveral paſſages in the moſt antient claſſic authors; two ſhort indexes are added; beſides a very full and minute table of contents.

'The one index, points out the paſſages in the Holy Scriptures, that are at all illuſtrated in theſe pages;—in regular order, according to the arrangement of the Sacred Books.

'And the other index, leads to ſuch paſſages in antient writers, as are here placed in any ſtriking point of view;—or have had any additional light caſt upon them.—And alſo ſome particular circumſtances, beſides thoſe mentioned in the table of contents, that are moſt deſerving of notice.—And is made as ſhort, and comprehenſive, as poſſible.

'The ſame plan will be purſued in the ſucceeding volumes; if the author's life is ſpared to print them.—And as to the reſt of their contents; it would be improper here to repeat what has been ſaid in the advertiſement prefixed to the Veſtiges of Oxford Caſtle. And eſpecially as no part of that little tract will now be inſerted in the body of this publication; but the whole will be left to be bound as an Appendix to the work at large: that no one may be obliged to purchaſe the contents of that diſſertation, in any ſhape, a ſecond time, for the completion of this publication.' P. ii.

The remainder of the preface, which extends to twenty

pages, consists of meagre and unintersting observations in a singularly colloquial, or rather talkative, style, better adapted to a private fire-side than to the eye of public criticism.

This first volume, or Book I. as the author calls it in the contents, is divided into seven chapters. Chapter I. gives a description of the old British fortresses, extending from p. 17 to p. 44. The remainder of the chapter relates to caves and hiding places. Hence, as will presently appear, only about 40 pages, out of 343, correspond with the title-page of the book.

After describing all the pits and hiding places mentioned in the Scriptures or profane travels, and a complete history of Jonathan and his armour-bearer, the author proceeds to chapter II. concerning all the stones of memorial which have been erected on the face of the earth. In chapter III. he proceeds to all the circles of memorial, of observances, and of observation; and in chapter IV. he gives us sacred circles, with altars of oblation. If the reader's head be not turned amidst these circles, he may advance to chapter V. concerning cromleches, and to chapter VI. concerning barrows and cairns. The VIIth and concluding chapter relates to rocking-stones, *tolmen*, and bason-stones. The traveller, with our author, will perceive that the soil is extremely stony, and we need not add that it is also extremely barren.

The introduction tells us, in a prodigality of words, the superiority of civilised over barbarous society, and how very fortunate it is that we have no human sacrifices. From chapter I. we learn that the British forts were chiefly situated on the tops of hills. From Cæsar's description we should rather have supposed them to have been placed in the midst of woods, and on low ground, for the sake of concealment, as the towns of the savages in America were generally found. But as Mr. King must know better than Cæsar, we shall dismiss this topic with observing that, instead of minute and original descriptions, which we expected, the author generally refers us to delineations by other writers, and even these references are sometimes erroneous; as, for instance, the *catter-thun*, which is taken from Pennant instead of general Roy; and so ignorant is our author of the common geography of his country, that he repeatedly styles the shire of *Mearns*, or Kincardin, the county of *Merris* or *Meris*. Even amidst the small portion of this volume which relates to ancient castles he falls into a variety of eccentric digressions, as his account of the canoes, the temple of Solomon, &c. &c. Nor can any thing be more deceitful than the author's table of contents, which indicates that descriptions of the places referred to occur in the pages enumerated; for, on turning to them, the reader will generally find not more than a line or two devoted to this pur-

poſe, and often a mere reference to another author. Accuſtomed as we are to the ſervility of antiquaries, we have no heſitation in pronouncing that we have never met with any work more foreign to its title, or more injudiciouſly conſtructed, than the preſent. Mr. King is perpetually a cloſe imitator of the pedagogue mentioned in Gil Blas, who wrote a diſſertation to prove that the Athenian children commonly cried when they were whipped. After prying into a number of foreign caves, as if they were very ſingular things, he thus proceeds:

'All theſe accounts uniformly ſhew, what recourſe mankind in general, in an uncivilized ſtate, in different countries, and eſpecially in thoſe which were firſt of all inhabited, had to theſe kind of hiding places, for ſecurity; as well as to ſtrongholds, on rocks, and hills. It may therefore very reaſonably be conceived, that the primæval inhabitants of this iſland, would not be without ſuch rude reſources: and accordingly we find remains that anſwer moſt preciſely to ſuch ſort of hiding places.

'For, as to thoſe for corn and grain, there is one that can hardly be miſtaken; although ſuch ſtrange concluſions have been drawn by ſome writers with regard to it; and even by one who judged ſo excellently well in other matters.

'It is at Royſton, in Hertfordſhire; moſt manifeſtly quite unconnected with the foundation of the preſent town; and prior to the exiſtence of any place of that denomination: for it was diſcovered, at laſt, only by means of an endeavour to put down a poſt in the market-place, in 1742.

'A very imperfect ſketch of it, taken from Dr. Stukeley's drawing, may be ſeen in Mr. Gough's Additions to Camden's Britannia, but it is in reality of a much more conical form than there repreſented. The deſcent to it is by a narrow pipe or well, juſt like thoſe in Syria. And as to the figures, and odd holes cut in the ſides, in the chalk, they are clearly the rude carvings of idle perſons, who have been down there at different times; and afford no rational ground for any conjectures, like thoſe of Dr. Stukeley, concerning a lady Roiſia, or its having been her oratory. Its ſituation, in a country full of Britiſh barrows; and in a ſpot of ſuch note in early ages, that two Roman roads were made to meet there; as well as the whole appearance of the place, ſpeak it to have been a moſt antient repoſitory for grain; and ſometimes even a ſecret hiding place for perſons, againſt irruptions of enemies, of that violent and ſudden kind ſo frequent in early ages.

'Of the ſame ſort of ſtructure alſo; and (as ſeems moſt plainly to appear from their whole form) deſigned for the ſame uſe, are thoſe numerous pits near Crayford, in Kent; deſcribed by Mr. Haſted. There are now to be ſeen, he ſays, as well on the heaths near Crayford, as in the fields and woods hereabout, many artificial caves in the earth; ſome or which are ten, ſome fifteen, and others twenty

fathoms deep. At the mouth and thence downward, they are narrow, like the tunnel or paſſage of a well, but at the bottom they are large and of great compaſs, inſomuch that ſome of them have ſeveral rooms, one within another, ſtrongly vaulted, and ſupported with pillars of chalk. Mr. Haſted apprehended them to have been made by the Saxons, in imitation of the cuſtom of their German anceſtors, as deſcribed by Tacitus; but if we conſider how much ſuperior the other Saxon modes of fortification appear, it ſeems much more reaſonable to conclude that they were firſt formed by the Britons, in conformity to the moſt antient uſages of mankind.

'There are ſeveral more of theſe kind of hiding pits, and of the like peculiar ſtructure, near Faverſham, in the ſame county.

'And of this kind ſeem to have been the pits mentioned by Camden, near Tilbury in Eſſex.

'That they were all really the works of the Britons, may be concluded; becauſe Diodorus Siculus expreſsly tells us, that the Britons did lay up their corn in ſubterranean repoſitories: from whence the antient people uſed to take a certain portion every day; and having dried and bruiſed the grains, made a kind of food thereof for immediate uſe.

'Nor is it unworthy our notice, that this ſort of diet, and alſo the quick mode of preparing it, greatly reſembles what we read of, as being ſtill in uſe, in ſome of the moſt uncivilized of the weſtern iſlands of Scotland; and in ſome parts of the Highlands; amongſt the deſcendants of the old Britiſh Caledonians. For there ſometimes, to this very day, a woman taking an handful of ears of corn, and holding them by the ſtalks in her left hand, ſets fire to the ears; and then with a ſtick in her right hand, beats off the parched grain, very dexterouſly, at the very inſtant when the huſk is quite burnt; by which means a quantity of corn is winnowed, ground, and baked, within an hour.' P. 47.

The author then gives us ſome excellent caves, ready cut and dried, from the hiſtory of Joſephus, and paſſes with the rapidity of an eagle from Scotland to Paleſtine, and from Paleſtine to Wales. All the paſſages of Scripture which mention any caves or holes are carefully reprinted, leſt the reader may not perhaps poſſeſs a Bible. Nay, to fill up the book, even whole pages are borrowed from Dr. Robertſon's Hiſtory, and from Sully's Memoirs, concerning the ſurpriſal of ſome modern caſtles!

It would be endleſs to endeavour to rectify Mr. King's confuſed ideas reſpecting many ancient places. Courts of juſtice, and other civil monuments, are by our author converted into caſtles or temples, and inſtead of diſcuſſing the real intention of the edifice he gravely takes it for granted, whereas his very firſt office ought to have been to have laid ſolid foundations, and to have convinced his readers that he could not miſ-

take a church for a windmill. All the ancient Britons he likewise conſiders as *aboriginal*, as he calls them, totally forgetting the Belgic coloniſation mentioned by Cæſar, and other ancient authors. This ignorance of the real hiſtory of his country neceſſarily leads to the groſſeſt blunders; for it is impoſſible to give a juſt and ſatisfactory illuſtration of ancient monuments, except by profound inquiries into the annals of the country where they are found.

The following extract may perhaps amuſe our readers more than the tedious enumeration of old forts and caves, interlarded with paſſages from the Scriptures and Joſephus.

'After having thus endeavoured to form a clear idea of the nature of the fortreſſes, and of the mode of habitation of the antient Britons; we cannot but wiſh to obtain, as far as is poſſible, ſome little conception of the appearance of their perſons, and of their manners.

'Cæſar ſays, the inhabitants of Kent were the moſt civilized of any; and the moſt nearly reſembled the natives of Gaul. For the inhabitants of the interior parts of the iſland, according to his account, were ſo utterly unacquainted with the conveniences of life, that they did not even ſow any corn at all, but lived entirely upon milk, and fleſh.

'All the Britons painted themſelves more or leſs (*vitro*), that is, according to the apprehenſions of the beſt commentators, with woad, of a bluiſh colour, in order to render themſelves of a more formidable appearance in battle. And Herodian affirms, that ſome of them, on the ſea coaſt, punctured their bodies (στιζονται) with figures reſembling various kinds of animals; in conſequence of which they alſo went without garments, that they might not cover or conceal thoſe indented repreſentations; which we may obſerve muſt have been very nearly of the ſame kind, as to the manner in which they were impreſſed, with the marks made by tattowing in the South Sea Iſlands.

'They had long lank hair; but were ſhorn in every part of the body, except the head, and upper lip. And excepting the perſons juſt mentioned, they were, in general, clad with ſkins.

'To this, which is the ſubſtance of the account given by Cæſar, Strabo adds, that many of the inhabitants were ſo rude, and unſkilful, as neither to be able to make any cheeſes, although they had plenty of milk; nor to cultivate pot herbs; or to uſe any kind of tillage of the ground whatever.

'Their wretched black ſubſtitute for ſalt alſo, was obtained merely by pouring ſea water on the embers of burning wood. And with this they, or at leaſt the neighbouring Iriſh, are ſaid, in ſome inſtances, to have devoured human fleſh, and to have drank the blood of animals, and even of their enemies. And it muſt be confeſſed, that the barbarity and horrid cuſtoms of ſome barbarous nations,

lately discovered, render these accounts too probable, however questionable the authority of the authors who relate them may be.

'But though there were such instances of barbarity in some parts, yet this wretched savage state was not universal: and with regard to their druids, we may infer, from Strabo's account of those in Gaul, whom they so nearly resembled, that this order of men were even richly clad; and that some of them even wore golden chains, or collars, about their necks and arms; and had their garments dyed with various colours, and adorned with gold.

'Chains also, both of iron, and gold, appear to have been worn by some of the chieftains, and noble personages.

'And from his account of the common people in Gaul, and of the intercourse the Britons had with them, and of the close similarity of their customs, we may conclude that some of the common order of Britons, instead of the rude skins of beasts, wore very thick coarse wrappers, made of wool: which must plainly have been a sort of blankets, or rugs, fastened about the neck with a little sharp pointed piece of stick. They wore also a coarse slit short vest, reaching down barely to the thighs, with sleeves. Whilst, for weapons, and armour, they had a long two-handed sword, hanging by a chain, on the right hand side; a great long wooden shield, as tall as a man; long spears; and a sort of missile wooden instrument like a javelin, longer than an arrow, which they darted merely by the hand; (both of which latter, seem plainly to denote two different sorts of those kinds of weapons, called Celtes, fixed at the end of staves and sticks) and some of them used slings for stones. There were amongst them also those who had breastplates made of plates of iron, with hooks, or with wreathed chains; and such as had helmets also of different fashions: but some went into the field of battle nearly quite naked, who probably were those mentioned by Herodian, whose bodies were punctured with figures resembling various animals: and who had sometimes wreathed chains of iron about their necks and loins.

'They generally lay and reposed themselves on the bare ground; yet most of them ate their food sitting on seats.

'And they had a particular species of dogs, most excellent for hunting; and so fierce, that the Gauls made use of them in war.

'From these accounts compared together, and duly weighed, we may venture to represent to our imaginations some tolerably adequate idea of the appearance which the antient Britons must have made.' P. 96.

When the author refers, p. 101, to German statues, supposed to represent druids, he should have looked into the ancient authors, who would have told him in express words that the Germans had no druids. There is no reason to believe that any were known among the Belgæ in Britain, a German colony; and consequently this vast and costly volume on castles may be pronounced, in a great measure, a castle in the air.

When Mr. King, p. 112, gravely aſſerts that a modern Welch pig-ſtye, built of ſtone, affords the real repreſentation of the ancient Britiſh huts, which were of wood, and that the Welch ſledge, with low or no wheels, reſembles the ancient Britiſh car uſed in battle, we can only pity ſuch a confuſion of ideas; for the wheels of the car muſt have been of conſiderable height, otherwiſe the chiefs could not have fought with any advantage, or their perſonal commands been obſerved by numerous battalions.

The author obſerves, p. 113, that the term druidic temples is abſurd, as the druids had no temples: but his diſtinction between temples and ſacred circles is truly nugatory; and it is ſurpriſing that the truth did not ſtrike him that Stonehenge, and other ſuch circles, have not the moſt diſtant connection with the druids, being found in Germany, Scandinavia, and other countries, where druids were totally unknown, and where the antiquaries have well deſcribed them as ancient courts of juſtice, proportioned in ſize to various dignities, from the regal down to the baronial, or the ſmalleſt ſubdiviſion of public judicature. This fact he might have found ſtaring him in the face in many pages of the Icelandic hiſtorians; ſuch as Snorro, the Landnama, or origins of Iceland, and the commentators. It is true that a ſacrifice, ſometimes human, was offered up before the buſineſs commenced; but theſe ſacrifices do not conſtitute a temple any more than our prayers in parliament render the houſe of lords a church.

The author's quotations from Scripture and from profane writers, to evidence that ſtones were anciently erected as memorials, might well have been ſpared, the fact being univerſally known and admitted. It reminds us of a faſhion in the time of James I. by which no author was permitted to obſerve that ſnow was white, without adducing ten or twelve authorities in ſupport of his aſſeveration. The preparation of lead, mentioned p. 124, which will quickly wear away the hardeſt granite, ought to have been ſpecified; nor is the authority of Dr. Moyes ſufficient for ſuch a new and ſingular diſcovery.

In the third chapter, after a very ample diſplay of learning, biblical and profane, we expected to have found a more particular account of Britiſh monuments, but were again diſappointed. The author, who is an entire ſtranger to the ancient population and hiſtory of Great Britain, wildly ſuppoſes that the Picts of the North, who came from Scandinavia, where there were no druids, nevertheleſs followed the druidic ſyſtem, and that what are called Picts' houſes were the reſidence of druids!

The only intereſting part of the fourth chapter is the account of Stonehenge, accompanied with large engravings, which ſeem pretty faithful. On a recent viſit to this remarkable edi-

face, the ſhortneſs of the diameter was matter of ſurpriſe to us, being only forty-ſeven ſteps; nor did the whole fabric anſwer our expectation. The imaginary plans drawn by various antiquaries to ſupport their hypotheſes we ſhall not ſtop to examine, but ſhall only briefly mention that theſe ruins conſiſt of three concentric circles, the innermoſt being of ſmall ſtones, about five feet high each. The ſecond circle of large ſtones, about eighteen feet in height, appears to have been formed into a kind of gateway, by a third ſtone being laid over two uprights, in ſuch a mode that there was no room for another ſtone to reſt over the vacancy, as the overlaying ſtone extends to the extremities of the two uprights. In the outermoſt circle, on the contrary, the ſtones at the top are uniformly continued, ſo as to preſent a narrow pavement around the whole court. At a diſtance equal to that of the diameter of the circle ſtand three high ſtones, one towards the weſt, and another towards the eaſt. On the ſouth there never appears to have been any; but on the north is not only a high and maſſy ſtone, but one of great breadth and length, which never can have ſtood upright, as it is, on the contrary, ſurrounded by a parapet in every direction. This, we agree with Mr. King, was the altar. From what part the ſtones were brought is by no means obvious; but they are generally pale yellowiſh ſandſtones, not fermenting with acids, and therefore conſiſting either wholly of ſiliceous particles, or mixed with an argillaceous cement.

From this plain account of this celebrated ſtructure, it will ſtrike every northern antiquary, accuſtomed to ſuch objects, that it was a high national court, in which rude parliaments were held, and juſtice adminiſtered. Within the innermoſt circle are three ſtones, which ſeem intended for ſeats, and on which probably were placed the king or chief of the Belgæ or German ſettlers, who inhabited Wiltſhire and other countries to the ſouth, and on each ſide of him the high prieſt, and the chief judge, or moſt ſkilful man in the traditional laws. When they had taken their ſeats, a rope was drawn around the innermoſt circle of ſmall ſtones, as uſual in Scandinavia, to prevent any improper intruſions; and this ceremony being accompliſhed, the court was ſaid to be fenced, a phraſe yet retained in the Scotiſh law. The ſubject propoſed by the king or chief judge being afterwards debated by the chiefs, who ſtood around within the exterior circle, the next object was to ſubmit the propoſition to the general council of the nation, conſiſting of all the males capable of bearing arms. To be ſeen and heard by ſo numerous an aſſembly, conſiderable elevation and change of ſituation became neceſſary, and ſuch, it may be conceived, was the intention of the outermoſt circle, preſenting an uniform pavement at the top, around which a

chief or chiefs (having aſcended by ſmall ladders) might walk and diſcourſe at eaſe to the ſurrounding people. And it cannot fail to impreſs the ſpectator, that at a very conſiderable diſtance from the circle there is in every direction a kind of ſhelving bank, natural or artificial, capable of containing an immenſe multitude, who might all behold what paſſed within the circle itſelf, which is, as it were, in the central bottom of this gentle cavity.

Inſtead of a plain rational account of theſe ruins, our pious author has crowded numerous pages with ample quotations from the Scriptures concerning the kingdom of the Meſſiah, though no ſound mind can perceive any connection between ſuch a ſubject and Stonehenge; and the reader, who is judicious as well as religious, will be apt to eſteem ſuch an incongruous mixture a mere profanation. In p. 189, Mr. King mentions Mr. Keate's two views of Stonehenge, but ought to have added that they are completely out of drawing, to uſe the language of artiſts; for by preſenting the backs of ſome ſtones, of which he ought to have given the front, as we obſerved on the ſpot, and other groſs errors in perſpective, the views are literally good for nothing. As to Mr. King's hiſtory of this and other circular remains, it is like the reſt of his work, injudicious, viſionary, and obſcure.

The fifth chapter, on cromleches, or monuments of two ſtones, with one above and acroſs, preſents nothing worth notice; nor do the author's eccentric opinions, here again crowded into the ſubject, deſerve the attention of any man of ſound learning. Many of theſe pretended monuments of art occur in Alpine countries, where they ariſe naturally from ſome pieces of the rock being harder than others, and remaining in groteſque ſituations, while the ſofter parts are waſhed away. Nor can any thing be more ludicrous than to ſee our author, amidſt his ſolicitous labour in illuſtrating pagan monuments, expreſſing ſuch religious execrations of pagan rites. Having mentioned that the celebrated Cook was preſented to idols in the South Sea, he calls out Horror! horror! horror! and he pronounces any theatrical repreſentation of pagan rites abominable. Can even the weakeſt author in this enlightened age forget that it is merely the intention which conſtitutes guilt, or ſuppoſe that captain Cook, or any ſpectator of a drama, founded on foreign ſuperſtitions, has the moſt remote idea of profeſſing ſuch ſuperſtition himſelf? Totally different was the caſe when Chriſtianity was ſtruggling with paganiſm;—but the author's perpetual confuſion extends even to the moſt plain and palpable ſubjects.

As much has recently been written concerning the barrows on the plain of Troy, we ſhall extract a part of Mr. King's diffuſe chapter on barrows.

'The barrow said to be that of Patroclus and Achilles, with some others near adjoining, are thus described by Dr. Chandler; who surveyed them in their present state.

"Early in the morning we descended the slope, on which Sigéum stood. After walking eight minutes we came between two barrows, standing each in a vineyard, or inclosure. One was that of Achilles and Patroclus; the other, which was on our right hand, that of Antilochus, son of Nestor. This had a fragment or two of white marble on the top, which I ascended: as had also another, not far off, which, if I mistake not, was that of Peneleus, one of the leaders of the Bœotians, who was slain by Eurypylus. We had likewise in view the barrow of Ajax Telamon; and at a distance from it, on the side next Lectos, that of Æsytes, mentioned in Homer."

'The fragments of marble found here, on the tops of the barrows of Antilochus, and Peneleus, deserve our attention: because they plainly shew, that here were placed rude marble pillars, similar to that which was erected on the barrow of Ilus, which has been already so particularly taken notice of.

'And because we have also reason to think there was formerly such an one on the barrow of Achilles: inasmuch as Plutarch tells us, that Alexander poured oil on the stone pillar of the grave of Achilles; when he had passed the Hellespont, on his way into Persia.

'The barrow of Hecuba, Chandler says, is still very conspicuous, near one of the castles of the Hellespont.

'And the same curious and intelligent traveller observed, before the antient Sardes, on the opposite side of the plain, many barrows, on an eminence, some of which are seen afar off.

'And at the distance of five miles from thence, by the antient Gygæa, where was the burying-place of the Lydian kings, he saw many more barrows, of various sizes; four or five of which were distinguished by their superior magnitude. All of them covered with green turf, and retaining, as far as he could examine them, their conical form, without any sinking in at top.

'They are all placed on an eminence.—And on the same rising ground, near the middle, and towards Sardes, is most remarkably conspicuous, the vast monument, or barrow, of Halyattes, the father of Crœsus. Where the mold, which has been washed down by time, now conceals (as Chandler very fairly supposes), the basement of stone, mentioned by Herodotus.

'That great historian's very remarkable description of the mode of constructing it well deserves our notice.—And especially as one part of his account will admit of two different kinds of explanation: and as that which has never yet been adopted, may probably be the true one.

'Herodotus says, "Lydia exhibits one work, by far the greatest of any, except the works of the Egyptians and Babylonians. F

there is there, the ſepulchre of Halyattes, the father of Crœſus. The foundation of which (or the bottom part), ἡ κρηπις, is of great ſtones; but the reſt of the ſepulchre χωμα γης, a tumulus of earth."

'Here we have, ſurely, in the firſt place, an exact deſcription of what perfectly reſembles a large Britiſh, or Iriſh barrow.

'We have alſo ſome intimation, in the next place, of the probable exiſtence of a paſſage, and *kiſtvaen*, or ſmall room, under the foundation of great ſtones; deſigned for the reception of the bones and aſhes; and formed of large rude ſtones, as in ſome of our barrows; and both covered, and ſurrounded with other large ſtones. Over which there was then, a vaſt tumulus, or mount of earth, heaped up very high.

'And the hiſtorian, after this, goes on, and ſays, as has hitherto been apprehended), "that the artificers, the labourers, and the girls who were proſtituted for hire, conſtructed it. And even to my days, are remaining five termini, on the top of the ſepulchre; having letters inſcribed, recording what each had performed. And on a meaſurement it appeared, that the work of the girls was the moſt conſiderable.—The circuit, or circumference, of this ſepulchre is ſix ſtadia, and two plethra (that is, a little more than three quarters of a mile; and the breadth is thirteen plethra."

'But in tranſlating the whole in this manner, there ſeems to be no ſmall difficulty as to the word οὖροι; which is tranſlated *termini*, or *rude boundary ſtones;* and alſo as to the words γραμματα ενεκεκολαπτο; which are tranſlated *letters were inſcribed*. For, indeed, it is only by a particular mode of accenting, that οὖρος can ever be put for ὅρος *terminus*, or *fines—a boundary*, or *limit*.—And much more properly οὐρὸς may mean *alveus*, or *foſſa*, a *ditch*, or *artificial trench;* whilſt, at the ſame time, the word ενεκεκολαπτο, in reality rather implies, that letters, or marks, were impreſſed, *by being ſtampt*, or *beaten in*, than by being *inſcribed*, or *cut*. The expreſſion, therefore, actually uſed by Herodotus, does not, in reality, at all agree with the idea of an inſcription being cut on boundary ſtones; or on any ſtone monuments: but exactly agrees with that of rude characters, or marks, being ſtampt, or beaten into the ſide of a dry ditch (perhaps ſomewhat in the manner that thoſe old memorials, the figures of the white horſe, and of the white-leaf croſs, are formed on the ſides of certain chalk hills, in our own country.

'Herodotus then expreſsly ſays, it appeared, by meaſuring, that the work of the girls was the greateſt. And we may obſerve it certainly would be ſo, in every reſpect, if their ditch was, as it ſhould ſeem to have been, the outermoſt of five concentric ones, formed on the ſummit of this vaſt barrow.

'I ſhould therefore be greatly inclined to tranſlate the words of Herodotus as follows; taking them as they might appear before the invention of accents.

" Του ἡ κρηπὶς μεν εστι λιθων μεγαλων, το δε αλλο σημα, χωμα γης. εξειργασαντο δε μιν οι αγοραιοι ανθρωποι, και οι χειρωνακτες, και αι ενεργαζομεναι παιδισκαι. ουροι δε πεντε εοντες, ετι και ες εμε ησαν επι του σηματος ανω· και σφι γραμματα ενεκεκολαπτο, τα εκαστοι εξειργασαντο· και εφαινετο μετρεομενον το των παιδισκεων εργον εον μεγιστον.

" The bottom part of it was a maſs of great ſtones; but the reſt of the ſepulchre a tumulus of earth.—The men in civil life (or who exerciſed public offices), and the craftſmen (or mechanics), and the girls who were proſtitutes, reared this ſepulchre, each claſs by themſelves.—And there were yet exiſting, even to my days, five ditches (or artificial trenches), upon the ſepulchre on the upper part; on which were ſtampt (or impreſſed) letters (or characters), ſhewing what each ſet had wrought. And, on meaſuring, it appeared that the work of the girls was the greateſt."

' According to this tranſlation, we find, this ſepulchre was (as Chandler indeed found it to be) a great barrow, or artificial hill.

' And, according to this tranſlation of the whole, we are further informed, that it was raiſed over certain great ſtones, which immediately covered the bones and aſhes; whilſt, at the top, were five great works, like ditches, or artificial trenches; ſomewhat in the manner of thoſe of an antient hill fortreſs, ſurrounding the area on the ſummit. On the ſlopes of which ditches were rudely ſtampt, in large characters, certain marks, or letters, expreſſing how much of the work each of the ſeveral claſſes of people had performed.

' And this account ſurely agrees much better with the rudeneſs of thoſe early ages, than the idea of any regular pillars, or carved ſtones, with inſcriptions engraved upon them. Which pillars, if ſuch had really been what he intended to deſcribe, the hiſtorian would rather have mentioned, by the proper word στηλαι. By which the rude pillars, on the barrows of Ilus, and of Patroclus, and Achilles, are actually mentioned.

' To proceed then with the conſideration of ſuch works of the primæval ages, in parts of the earth firſt inhabited, as were ſimilar to our Britiſh barrows.

' Chandler ſaw in Greece, another barrow, on the ſhore near Ægina; which ſeems to have been the ſame with that ſeen by Pauſanias in Adrian's time, when it had ſtill remaining, upon its ſummit, a rough ſtone.

' There is alſo ſtill remaining a moſt remarkable barrow, on the plain of Marathon; which was in like manner taken notice of by Pauſanias; and ſeems to have been that under which the Athenians were buried, after the celebrated battle with the Perſians. It is, though ſo many centuries have elapſed ſince the time of Pauſanias, a mount that ſtill towers above the level of the plain. It is of light fine earth, and has a buſh or two growing on it. And from the ſummit is a moſt pleaſant view of the country.

' There are alſo ſome other barrows in the adjacent region, near

a part called Brauron, which may probably be ſome of thoſe others mentioned by Pauſanias, as belonging to other perſons ſlain in this famous battle.

'And it ought not to be forgotten, that when Laius had been ſlain at Phocis, in a ſudden tumult, by his ſon Œdipus, ſtones were heaped over him, and thoſe ſlain with him; which muſt have formed a kind of cairn, or ſtone barrow, and ſeems to have exiſted in the days of Pauſanias.

'Neither ſhould it be forgotten, that when Tydeus, the father of Diomed, was ſlain, in the Theban war, he was buried by heaping, or pouring out, earth upon him; that is, by means of forming a barrow, or tumulus over him.

'Τυδεος, ον Θηβησι χυτη κατα γαια καλυψε.

'So, the ſepulchre of Lycus, near Sicyone, was a barrow of earth.

'And even ſo late as in the time of Alexander, his friend Hepheſtion (like Patroclus the friend of Achilles), was buried under a barrow.—Juſtin ſays, that Alexander raiſed a tumulus over him, at the expence of twelve thouſand talents. And from the manner in which Quintus Curtius ſpeaks of it, we may clearly perceive that ſuch a kind of interment was then become, even in thoſe days, which we now deem ſo early, ſomewhat unuſual.

'So alſo, if Xenophon's Hiſtory of Cyrus is to be relied on as containing real facts; when Abradates and Panthea were honoured by that conqueror with diſtinguiſhed marks of reſpect; on the interment of that unhappy pair (Panthea having killed herſelf, that ſhe might be interred in the ſame grave with her huſband), a great tumulus of earth was raiſed over them; Cyrus having before promiſed Panthea, that ſuch a monument ſhould be reared by many hands, and that ſuch victims ſhould be ſacrificed, as were becoming the memory of a brave man.' P. 270.

In this chapter, as uſual, the profeſſed object of the book is not once mentioned; and even the object of the chapter, which ought, at leaſt, to have particularly illuſtrated the barrows in Great Britain, is exchanged for a deſultory enumeration of thoſe found all over the world. The rocking-ſtones of the laſt chapter are frequently the mere produce of nature, proceeding, as we before mentioned, from one part of a rock being harder than another. In ſhort, the reader will riſe from this ponderous folio with the firm opinion that the author is very religious, but very weak, and certainly very ignorant and injudicious as an antiquary; for his ſubjects, inſtead of receiving illuſtration from his labours, are involved, if poſſible, in additional darkneſs. We do not wiſh to remind him of the archbiſhop of Granada, but no writer can be more unlike himſelf; and when we conſider that this work is produced by the

author of the observations on ancient castles, published, as we have already observed, in the Archæologia, we are prompted to exclaim, in his own favourite language of Scripture, 'What is man!'

كتاب مسالک و ممالک تصنیف ابن حوقل

The Oriental Geography of Ebn Haukal, an Arabian Traveller of the Tenth Century. Translated from a Manuscript in his own Possession, collated with one preserved in the Library of Eton College, by Sir William Ouseley, Knt. LL. D. 4to. *1l. 7s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

AMONG the curious and learned productions for which the literary world is indebted to sir William Ouseley, this may be classed as the most important. The antiquity of Ebn Haukal, and the frequent references made to his work by Edrisi, Abulfeda, and others who have thence derived a great part of their materials, have justly excited a desire to become acquainted with the original. This father of Oriental geography appears to have been a great traveller, and to have actually visited most of the countries which he describes. The dryness of his manner will not recommend him to the general reader; but as a book of reference he may be frequently and advantageously consulted.

In his preface, the ingenious translator first demonstrates, from passages in the work itself, that the author flourished rather before the middle of the tenth century, and proceeds to mention the title of this work in the original Arabic preserved in the library at Leyden, and in the Persian translation which he has used. It is to be regretted that in these references the author has been negligent in affixing the diacritical points, so that the proper enunciation of the names is often left obscure. Sir William afterwards shows, from quotations by Abulfeda, that this is the identic work of Ebn Haukal, and laments the great inaccuracy of the Oriental copyists, who disfigure their transcripts with numerous errors and omissions.

'Of the difficulties arising from an irregular combination of letters, the confusion of one word with another, and the total omission, in some lines, of the diacritical points, I should not complain, because habit and persevering attention have enabled me to surmount them in passages of general description, or sentences of common construction; but in the names of persons or of places never before seen or heard of, and which the context could not assist in deciphering, when the diacritical points were omitted, conjecture alone could supply them, or collation with a more perfect manuscript. The former I have seldom indulged, and the latter has enabled me, in

ſeveral inſtances, to aſcertain the true reading; and even the few names in which I have ſupplied the diacritical points from conjecture, are pointed out to the reader by a note, or otherwiſe.

'Notwithſtanding what I have juſt ſaid, and although the moſt learned writers on Hebrew, Arabick, and Perſian literature, have made obſervations on the ſame ſubject, it may perhaps be neceſſary to demonſtrate, by a particular example, the extraordinary influence of thoſe diacritical points, which, as they are eſſential parts of letters, muſt not be confounded with the vowel points or accents.

'One example will ſuffice—Let us ſuppoſe the three letters forming the name تبت Tibbet to be diveſted of their diacritical points, and thus written بب—The firſt character may be rendered, by the application of one point above, an N, thus, ن—of two points a T, ت—of three points a TH or S, ث; if one point is placed under, it becomes a B ب—if two points, a Y ي—and if three points, a P پ. In like manner the ſecond character may be affected, and the third character may be, according to the addition of points, rendered a B, P, T, and TH, or S.

'Thus, amidſt the multiplicity of names which may be formed of thoſe three characters, it would be almoſt impoſſible, without the aid of context, or previous conſideration, to aſcertain the true reading: and, to uſe the words of Golius, that moſt learned Orientaliſt, on a ſimilar occaſion, one muſt act the part of a diviner before he can perform that of an interpreter.' P. xix.

We rather ſuſpect that ſir William Ouſeley allows too much ſpace for the medium of a day's journey, when he computes it at thirty miles. In the hot climates of the Eaſt, and the ſlow progreſs of camels and caravans, not more than twenty miles a day may be allowed; and in real fact the day's journey is ſometimes only twelve. The paraſang ſir William Ouſeley eſtimates at about four Engliſh miles. When the learned editor obſerves that the Macedonian conqueſts muſt have introduced the numerous coincidences to be found between the Perſian and Greek languages, he certainly aſcribes too much to ſuch a brief, partial, and tranſitory event, and ſhould rather have admitted, with the moſt eminent literati, that there was an original identity of ſpeech, afterwards nearly obliterated, as that between the Engliſh and the German,—a common fountain and intermixture of language. A vague paſſage of that declaimer Seneca would afford but a poor proof of the prevalence of the Macedonian tongue. Seneca was a mere rhetorician, and, conſiſtently with his profeſſion, would have no objection to ſacrifice the truth to a falſe ornament of ſpeech. The editor further mentions, that finding his notes on ſeveral paſſages exceed the bounds he had intended, he has reſerved them

for another work on the geography of the Aſiatics, derived from numerous Oriental writers, and illuſtrated with maps; a work which will no doubt meet with the moſt favourable reception. He concludes his preface with expreſſing his hopes that this publication may prove acceptable to the Orientaliſt, the antiquary, and the geographer:—

'For the reſult of my former labours has taught me to expect no other recompenſe than praiſe, and the hopes of ſubſtantial profit have been extinguiſhed by ſucceſſive diſappointments.'

It ſeems indeed impoſſible that any pecuniary recompenſe can ariſe from publications of this nature; and it is much to be regretted that the moſt opulent commercial company in the world, deriving ſo many advantages from its Oriental intercourſe, ſhould not allot ſome ſmall pittance out of its vaſt income to promote this peculiar department of ſcience. Even the Dutch Eaſt-India Company, a mere ſkeleton in compariſon with the Engliſh, evinces more taſte and a more liberal ſpirit; and would ſcarcely have failed to have encouraged a Townſon in exploring the mineral wealth of their poſſeſſions, or an Ouſeley in diffuſing the knowledge of the language and literature they contain. When, in the courſe of revolving ages, our opulent and chartered company ſhall have vaniſhed away, its memoirs will hardly be reſcued from oblivion by the ſcientific liberality it has manifeſted, or tranſmitted to poſterity by the grateful monuments of ſcholars whom it has foſtered.

A general idea of this work may be conveyed in a few words. Ebn Haukal firſt explains his plan; gives a curſory deſcription of the countries and ſeas that lie within its range; and then enters into a brief account of Arabia, Abyſſinia, the weſt of Africa, Egypt, and Syria. The chief part of his publication is dedicated to Perſia and the ſurrounding ſtates.

Such a ſtranger is Ebn Haukal (p. 8) to the Franks, that he ſuppoſes them to be all ſubject to one king. Whether this error proceed from his applying the term Franks to the ſubjects of the Byſantine empire alone, or from his conſidering every European nation as ſubject to the emperor of Germany, may be matter of inquiry. In p. 21 the author mentions Fez, and ſays that it was poſſeſſed by Iahia, which can ſcarcely be reconciled with the accounts publiſhed by M. Cardon in the Oriental manuſcripts. A part of the deſcription of Egypt we ſhall tranſcribe.

'There are great quantities of dates, and many corn fields, along the banks of the Nile, from that to near اسوان Aſouan, and to the borders of اسكندريه Eſkanderiah. When the weather becomes very warm, the water increaſes; and when it ſinks, they ſow their grain; after that, there is no neceſſity for water. In the land

of Egypt there falls not either rain or ſnow; nor is there in the whole country any running ſtream beſide the river Nile.

'فيوم Fioum is not a very conſiderable town. It is ſaid that the prophet Joſeph, on whom be the bleſſing of God! brought the water to that place, and called it لاهوت Lahout: And there is not any perſon who knows the fountains or ſource of the river Nile; on this account, becauſe it iſſues from a cavern in the territories of زنكبار Zingbar, from a certain ſpot, which a man may very nearly approach, yet never can arrive at: after this, it runs through the inhabited and deſert parts of the land of the Nubians to مصر Miſr (Egypt); and there where it firſt becomes a river, it is equal to the دجله و فرات Deljeh and Frat (Tigris and Euphrates.) And the water of the river Nile is the moſt pure and delicious of all the waters on the face of the earth.

'The Nile produces نهنك crocodiles, and the fiſh ماهي سقنقور ſekenkour: and there is alſo a ſpecies of fiſh, called راعده raadah, which if any perſon take in his hand while it is alive, that perſon will be affected by a trembling of his body; when dead, this fiſh reſembles other fiſhes. The crocodile's head is very long, ſo long as to be one half of his whole form; and he has ſuch teeth, that, if a lion were to come within their hold, he would be deſtroyed. It ſometimes happens that the crocodile comes out of the water on the dry ground; but he has not then the ſame powers as when in the water. His ſkin is ſo hard that it reſiſts the blows of all weapons when ſtricken on the back: they therefore wound him where the fore legs join the body (literally, under the arm pits), and between the thighs. The سقنقور ſekenkour is a ſpecies of that fiſh (the crocodile), but the crocodile has hands and feet; and they uſe the ſekenkour in medicinal and culinary preparations. This creature is not found any where but in the river Nile.

'From اسوان Aſouan, along the banks of the Nile, as far as the ſea, the country is all inhabited and cultivated. On the ſouthern ſide of the Nile there is a place called سعيد Saied, where are mines of زبرجد zeberjed, and emeralds (زمرد zemrud) far in the deſert; and beſide theſe there are not any mines of thoſe precious ſtones. On the northern ſide of the river Nile, near Foſtat, there is a certain hill, called معظم Moazem, in the vicinity of which is found the ſtone خماهن khemahen; and this hill extends to the land of the يونان Iounans (Greeks): And near that

hill, in the district of Fostat, is a burying-place, where the tomb of Shafæi is situated;—the Lord be merciful to him!

'اسکندریه Eskanderia, Alexandria, is a considerable town, built on the sea-side: the houses, and other edifices, are of marble. And out in the sea there is a منارہ minareh, or watch-tower, of hard stone, and very lofty; it contains about three hundred houses: No one without a guide can arrive there.' P. 31.

In describing Basrah, p. 63, Ebn Haukal's 120,000 streams ought surely to be reduced to 120. In the opinion of Ebn Haukal, Persia was the first country in the world; and he accordingly illustrates it with a more minute and detailed description. He thus commences his account of its cities:

'اصطخر Istakhar is a city neither small nor great, more ancient than any city whatsoever of Pars. The extent of it is about one mile; and the sovereigns of Pars had their dwellings there, and Ardeshir resided in that place; and there is a tradition that Solomon the prophet (the blessing of God be on him!) used to set out from تبرثه Tabertha in the morning, and at night arrive at Istakhar. There is in Istakhar a mosque, which they call the mosque of Solomon, the son of David: and some people affirm that جم Jem, who reigned before ضحاک Zohak, was Solomon; but that opinion is erroneous. In ancient times Istakhar was well inhabited; and the bridge called Pool-i-Khorasan پول خراسان or the Khorasan bridge, is without the city.

'بشادور Beshadour was built by king Shapour. It has strong ramparts, and a ditch with water, in which weeds and thorns grow as high as the waist of a man, so thickly entangled, that one cannot, without considerable difficulty, be extricated from them. This place has four gates; and in the midst of it is a singular hill, or eminence, like a tower or dome. The buildings are of clay.

'جور Jawr was built by Ardeshir. It is said that this place was formerly a small lake, and that Ardeshir, having there obtained a victory over his enemy, desired to build a city on the spot, and ordered the water to be drained away. The walls are of clay. There are four gates; One is called the باب مهر Bab Mihr; it leads to the east: another is the باب بهرام Bab Behram, leading to the west. On the right hand is situated the دروازه هرمز Derwazeh Hormuz, or gate of Hormuz; and on the left the gate of Ardeshir دروازه اردشیر This gate was erected by Ardeshir; and from it there is a view of all the districts and territories. Op-

poſite to this is a hill, from which water guſhes with great force, and falls into an aqueduct, which was formed of ſtone and mortar, but is now fallen to ruin. The city is well ſupplied with running water; and in the vicinity of each gate there is about a farſang laid out in gardens and pleaſure-grounds.

'شيراز Shiraz is a modern city, built by محمد بن القاسم عقايل Mohammed ben alcaſſem Okail, uncle (or couſin-german) of حجاج بن يوسف Hejaje ben Youſuf. The productions of every city are brought to Shiraz, and are not taken from that to any place. This was choſen as the ſtation of the army of Iſlam, on account of its vicinity to Iſtakhar, during the war. The city was at that time built: it extends about one farſang, and has not any walls. Here is a ديوان divan (court of revenue, tribunal, &c.) and the collectors of the revenue go there.' P. 100.

The account of the Perſians may alſo ſupply an intereſting extract.

'The inhabitants of the warm parts of this province are of ſlender make, and brown complexions, with little hair. In the colder region they are fatter, and have more hair, and their complexions are fairer. And they have three languages: The Parſi (زبان پارسی), which they uſe in ſpeaking one to another; though there may be ſome variations of dialects in different diſtricts, yet it is in fact all the ſame, and they all underſtand the language of each other, and none of their expreſſions or words are unintelligible: The Pehlavi language, زبان پهلوي which was formerly uſed in writings; this language now requires a commentary تفسير or explanatory treatiſe; and the Arabick language, زبان تازي which at preſent is uſed in the divans, or royal courts of juſtice, revenue, &c.

'The dreſs and ornaments of the princes are, ſhort coats, or tunics, open before; and large cloaks, or outer garments; ſmall faſhes wrapped round the turbans, and ſwords hung by belts, with tight boots. The cazis (or magiſtrates) wear on their heads caps (کلاه), ſo that their ears are covered, the end hanging on their ſhoulders. Their ſhirts are of a fine texture; but they do not wear boots, nor the outer cloak. The ſecretaries, or writers (دبيران) of Pars, wear the cloak and boots, and their habits reſemble thoſe of the Arabians.

'As to the manners of the people in Pars, thoſe who are the chief men, and who occupy the higher offices in the ſervice of the ſovereign, are polite and courteous: they have fine palaces, and are

very hoſpitable. The people, in general, are kind and civil in their manners. The merchants are remarkably covetous, and deſirous of wealth. I have heard that there was a certain man of Siraf who had paſſed forty years at ſea, never leaving his ſhip during that time: whenever he came to a port, he ſent ſome of his people on ſhore to tranſact his commercial affairs; and when that buſineſs was finiſhed, he ſailed on to ſome other place. The inhabitants of Siraf devote their whole time to commerce and merchandiſe. The author of the book ſays, "I myſelf ſaw ſeveral perſons who poſſeſſed four thouſand thouſand dinars; and there were ſome who had ſtill more; and their clothes were like thoſe of hired labourers." But the people of Cazeroun and Beſa traffick on ſhore; and they derive their fortunes from this kind of commerce: they are perſevering and patient in the acquiring of riches; and the men of Pars, whereſoever they go, are powerful and wealthy.

'As to the different religious ſects of the people of Pars, thoſe who inhabit the ſea-ſhore are of the ſame ſect as the people of Baſrah. From Siraf to Mahi-rooyan, and to ارغان Arghan, are nearly all the ſame. The inhabitants of جهرم Jehrem are of the Moatazelite hereſy: Thoſe who dwell in the warm region are of ſeven different ſects: and thoſe of the cold region, of Shiraz, and Iſtakhar, and Beſa, are believers in the Sonna (or traditions of Mahommed); and ſome are like the people of Baghdad, and have the Fetwa, according to the rules of thoſe who follow the Hadith, or holy traditions.

'In Pars there are fire-worſhippers, or Guebres (گبران), and Chriſtians (ترسایان), and ſome Jews (جهودان); "and the books of the Guebres, their fire temples, and their cuſtoms or ceremonies of guebriſm, or magiſm, ſtill continue among the people of Pars; and there are not in any country of Iſlam ſo many Guebres as in the land of Pars, which has been their capital or chief reſidence."

'In the books of the Perſians (پارسیان) it is recorded that ſeveral of their kings were of Pars, ſuch as Zohak, and Jem, and Feridoun, and others, till the time that Feridoun divided the earth among his ſons; and they were the kings of the earth till the time that Zhu'l'karnein (Alexander the Great) came, and ſlew Dara, the ſon of Darab; and the empire declined until the time of Ardeſhir. After him there were kings, ſuch as Shapour, and Baharam, and Kobad, and Firouz, and Hormuz, and others; moſt of whom were of Pars, or of Arabia: their dominion extended to the borders of روم Roum. But when an Arabian race conquered the whole world, Pars became as a conſiderable province to them, and the ſeat of empire was removed to Irak. The kings of Pars have been

highly celebrated; their hiſtory is ſo well known, that it were unneceſſary to ſay more of it in this place.' P. 114.

The remainder of this account is intereſting, and may illuſtrate ſome obſcure paſſages in Oriental hiſtory. We cannot conceive what is implied by the expreſſion 'hanged alive,' p. 127. If it be an Orientaliſm, it ſhould have been explained, for in England we rarely hang the dead.

After a brief hiſtory of Hinduſtan, Ebn Haukal returns to Armenia and other weſtern regions.

'دربند Derbend is a city built on the ſhore of the ſea, on two banks of a bay, with two walls conſtructed ſo as to render the navigation of ſhips more convenient and ſafe; and a chain is drawn acroſs the entrance, that ſhips may not enter or ſail out without permiſſion; and theſe two walls are formed of ſtone and lead: and this town of Derbend is ſituated on the coaſt of the ſea of طبرستان Taberiſtan. It is larger than Ardebil, with many fields, and meadows, and cultivated lands. It does not produce much fruit; but the people ſupply that from other quarters. A wall of ſtone extends from the city to the mountain; and another of clay, to hinder the كافران Cafres (Infidels) from coming into the town. Part of this wall projects a little way into the ſea, ſo that ſhips may not come too near the ramparts. This wall is a ſtrong building, and was the work of نوشيروان عادل Nouſhirvan Aadel (the juſt.)

'This city of Derbend is very large, and remarkable: it is ſurrounded by enemies, who have different languages. On one ſide of Derbend is a great mountain called اديب Adeib; on this they aſſemble every year, and make many fires, that they may confound and diſperſe their enemies from the borders of Azerbaijan, and Armenia, and Arran: they are as numerous as the waves of the ſea that come up to the walls of the city. It is ſaid that this mountain, which is cloſe to Derbend, contains above ſeventy different tribes, who have each a peculiar dialect, and underſtand not one the language of another.

'The ſovereigns of Perſia have conſidered the poſſeſſion of this city as a matter of great importance, and have eſtabliſhed a race of people to guard it, called طيربران Tairberan; and there is another tribe called حيلابشار Heilabſhar, and another called لكزان Lekzan: there are alſo two other tribes, the لنبران Lenıran and سروان Servan: the foot ſoldiers are moſtly of theſe tribes; they have few horſemen. Derbend is the port-town for خزر Khozr, and سرير Serir, and گركان Gurkan, and

طبرستان Taberiſtan, and كرج Kurge, and قپچاق Kapchak; and from it they ſend linen clothes to all parts of Arran and Azerbaijan. Here they alſo weave tapeſtry, or carpets, and cultivate ſaffron.' P. 158.

The account of the countries adjacent to the Caſpian Sea preſent many curious particulars. After a deſcription of Balkh the author proceeds to Tokhareſtan, and obſerves, p. 225, that in the mountains near Badakhſhan are found the ruby and the lapis lazuli. The latter ſubſtance, though now reported to exiſt only in Siberia, was certainly known to the ancients, and was probably brought from theſe mines in Bactriana, near the ſources of the Oxis. It is probably the blue jaſper of Pliny, of which he ſays the Scythian was the beſt kind, and was ſometimes ſpotted with gold.

'The province of Maweralnahr is one of the moſt flouriſhing and productive within the regions of Iſlam or Mohammedaniſm. The inhabitants are people of probity and virtue, averſe from evil, and fond of peace. Such is the fertility and abundance of this country, that if the other regions were afflicted by a ſcarcity or famine, the ſtock laid up on the preceding year in Maweralnahr would afford ample proviſion for them all. Every kind of fruit and meat abounds there; and the water is moſt delicious. The cattle are excellent; the ſheep from Turkeſtan, غزنين Ghaznein, and Samarcand, are highly eſteemed in all places.

'Maweralnahr affords raw ſilk, wool, and hair, in great quantities. Its mines yield ſilver, and tin or lead (ارزيز), abundantly; and they are better than the other mines, except thoſe of ſilver at پنجهير Penjhir; but Maweralnahr affords the beſt copper and quickſilver, and other ſimilar productions of mines; and the mines of ſal ammoniac (نوشادر) (uſed in tinning or ſoldering) in all Khoraſan, are there. Like the paper made at Samarcand, there is not any to be found elſewhere. So abundant are the fruits of سغد Soghd, and اشترشينه Aſterſheineh, and فرغانه Ferghanah, and چاج Chaje (or Shaſh), that they are given to the cattle as food. Muſk is brought from تبت Tibbet, and ſent to all parts. Fox-ſkins, ſable, and ermine ſkins, are all to be found at the bazars of Maweralnahr.

'Such is the generoſity and liberality of the inhabitants, that no one turns aſide from the rites of hoſpitality; ſo that a perſon contemplating them in this light, would imagine that all the families of the land were but one houſe. When a traveller arrives there, every perſon endeavours to attract him to himſelf, that he may have opportunities of performing kind offices for the ſtranger; and the beſt

proof of their hoſpitable and generous diſpoſition is, that every peaſant, though poſſeſſing but a bare ſufficiency, allots a portion of his cottage for the reception of a gueſt. On the arrival of a ſtranger, they contend, one with another, for the pleaſure of taking him to their home, and entertaining him. Thus, in acts of hoſpitality, they expend their incomes. The author of this work ſays, "I happened once to be in Soghd, and there I ſaw a certain palace, or great building, the doors of which were faſtened back with nails againſt the walls. I aſked the reaſon of this; and they informed me, that it was an hundred years, and more, ſince thoſe doors had been ſhut: all that time they had continued open day and night: ſtrangers might arrive there at the moſt unſeaſonable hours, or in any numbers; for the maſter of the houſe had provided every thing neceſſary both for the men and for their beaſts; and he appeared with a delighted and joyful countenance when the gueſts tarried a while. Never have I heard of ſuch things in any other country. The rich and great lords of moſt other places expend their treaſure on particular favourites, in the indulgence of groſs appetites and ſenſual gratifications. The people of Maweralnahr employ themſelves in a uſeful and rational manner: they lay out their money in erecting caravanſerais or inns, building bridges, and ſuch works. You cannot ſee any town or ſtage, or even deſert, in Maweralnahr, without a convenient inn or ſtage-houſe for the accommodation of travellers, with every thing neceſſary. I have heard that there are about two thouſand rebats or inns in Maweralnahr, where as many perſons as may arrive ſhall find ſufficient forage for their beaſts, and meat for themſelves." P. 233.

'In all the regions of the earth, there is not a more flouriſhing or a more delightful country than this, eſpecially the diſtrict of Bokhara. If a perſon ſtand on the قهندز Kohendiz (or ancient caſtle) of Bokhara, and caſt his eyes around, he ſhall not ſee any thing but beautiful green and luxuriant verdure on every ſide of the country: ſo that he would imagine the green of the earth and the azure of the heavens were united: And as there are green fields in every quarter, ſo there are villas interſperſed among the green fields. And in all Khoraſan and Maweralnahr there are not any people more long-lived than thoſe of Bokhara.

"It is ſaid that in all the world there is not any place more delightful (or ſalubrious) than thoſe three: one, the Soghd of Samarcand; another, the Rud Aileh; and the third, the Ghutah of Damaſcus." But the Ghutah of Damaſcus is within one farſang of barren and dry hills, without trees; and it contains many places which are deſolate, and produce no verdure. "A fine proſpect ought to be ſuch as completely fills the eye, and nothing ſhould be viſible but ſky and green." The river Aileh affords, for one farſang only, this kind of proſpect; and there is not, in the vicinity of it, any eminence from which one can ſee beyond a farſang; and

the verdant ſpot is either ſurrounded by or oppoſite to a dreary deſert. But the walls, and buildings, and cultivated plains of Bokhara, extend above thirteen farſang by twelve farſang; and the سغد Soghd, for eight days journey, is all delightful country, affording fine proſpects, and full of gardens, and orchards, and villages, corn fields, and villas, and running ſtreams, reſervoirs, and fountains, both on the right hand and on the left. You paſs from corn fields into rich meadows and paſture lands; and the Soghd is far more healthy than the Rud Aileh, or the Ghuteh of Dameſhk (or Damaſcus); and the fruits of Soghd are the fineſt in the world. Among the hills and palaces flow running ſtreams, gliding between the trees. In Ferghanah and چاج Chaje, in the mountains between Ferghanah and Turkeſtan, there are all kinds of fruits, of herbs, and flowers, and various ſpecies of the violet: all theſe it is lawful for any one who paſſes by, to pull and gather. In سیروشته Sirouſhteh there are flowers of an uncommon ſpecies.' P. 236.

The work cloſes with an account of the towns in Bokhara and Soghd, with their diſtances in farſangs.

The appendix contains the original Perſian of ſeveral curious or dubious paſſages. From an extract, p. 298, it appears that Samarcand, or the city of Samar, was ſo called from a conqueror, the ancient name having been Che. Yet it is commonly eſteemed to be the Manacanda of Ptolemy, in which caſe that geographer has placed it far too much to the ſouth. The volume concludes with two indexes; a neceſſary appendage to a publication which will be chiefly conſulted upon particular topics by literary inveſtigators; who are no doubt deeply indebted to ſir William Ouſeley for this labour and care beſtowed upon the father of Oriental geography.

Perſian Lyrics. (Concluded from p. 274.)

HAVING already offered ſome general remarks upon the Perſian gazel, and examined the 'introductory obſervations' prefixed to the preſent tranſlation, we now proceed to the gazels themſelves, which are ſelected for this expreſs purpoſe. They are eleven in number, and the mode of ſelection is thus expreſſed by our author.

'The reader is not to ſuppoſe, that the following gazels have been ſelected from the reſt of the ſeries, under any idea of their ſuperiority in point of beauty or excellence over others of the diwan. Such a ſuppoſition would neither be doing juſtice to the poet, nor to his imitator, who frankly owns himſelf by no means ſo adequately acquainted with the entire diwan, as to preſume to decide

on the comparative merit or demerits of each poem. He is at the ſame time perfectly aware, that theſe gazels by no means outvie, nay, very poſſibly do not even equal, others that, as well as part of theſe, have already appeared in print. The choice of them was entirely caſual: but the order in which they are diſpoſed, will require an apology. They were thrown into this artificial ſtate of arrangement merely with a view to the progreſſive operations of Love, the paſſion chiefly deſcribed, with which the two firſt, that relate to the vernal ſeaſon, may be ſuppoſed to have ſome collateral connection, from the influence of the climate, and the feſtivities ſo prevalent throughout the Eaſt at the period of their Nuruz. The firſt will therefore be found to be deſcriptive of morning and ſpring; the ſecond, of ſpring, and the conſequent feſtivities and youthful levities of the ſeaſon; the third, of juvenile revelry; the fourth, of amoreſcency; the fifth, of incipient love, love-ſick paſſion, &c.; the ſixth, of plaintive abſence; the ſeventh, of remonſtrative plaintiveneſs; the eighth, of adulation, though teſty and plaintive; the ninth, of plaintiveneſs with profeſſions of conſtancy; the tenth, of hope and doubt of reconciliation; and the eleventh, of deſpondency.' P. 24.

The odes ſelected do great credit to our author's taſte; we ſhould, perhaps, have made ſome little variation, had it fallen to our own lot to have choſen; but they are all poſſeſſed of much merit, and are among the happieſt efforts of the bard of Moſellay. The proſe verſion is, for the moſt part, highly animated, and generally a faithful type of the original. Without any diſparagement to the metrical paraphraſe, we certainly give the former the preference. We are, nevertheleſs, aware of the extreme difficulty of exhibiting the poetry of Aſia in European verſification, and think the rhyme tranſlation entitled to much praiſe. We ſhall ſelect the third and fourth gazels as ſpecimens of our author's talents.

'Minſtrel, tune ſome novel lay,
Ever jocund, ever gay;
Call for heart-expanding wine,
Ever ſparkling, ever fine.
Sit remov'd from prying eyes;
Love the game, the fair thy prize;
Toying ſnatch the furtive bliſs,
Eager look, and eager kiſs:
Freſh and freſh repeat the freak,
Often give, and often take.

'Can'ſt thou feed the hung'ring ſoul
Without drinking of the bowl?
Pour out wine; to her 'tis due:
Love commands thee—Fill anew;

Drink her health, repeat her name,
Often, often do the ſame.

'Frantic love more frantic grows,
Love admits of no repoſe:
Haſte, thou youth with ſilver feet,
Haſte, the goblet bring, be fleet;
Fill again the luſcious cup,
Freſh and freſh, come, fill it up.

'See, yon angel of my heart
Forms for me, with witching art,
Ornaments of varied taſte,
Freſh and graceful, freſh and chaſte.

'Gentle Zephyr, ſhould'ſt thou roam,
By my lovely charmer's home,
Whiſper to my deareſt dear,
Whiſper, whiſper in her ear,
Tales of Hafiz; which repeat,
Whiſper'd ſoft, and whiſper'd ſweet;
Whiſper tales of love anew,
Whiſper'd whiſpers oft renew.' P. 40.

We add the proſe verſion for a compariſon:

'1. O minſtrel with a ſweet voice! begin an air that is freſh and new:
Call for heart-expanding wine freſh and freſh.
'2. Sit down from prying eyes and enjoy thy miſtreſs, as a game, in private:
Snatch eager kiſſes from her freſh and freſh.
'3. How canſt thou eat the bread of life without drinking wine?
Quaff wine to her dear remembrance again and again.
'4. O cup-bearer with legs of ſilver, I am intoxicated with the love of thy beauty!
Quick fetch the cup, that I may fill it again and again.
'5. My heart-raviſhing angel makes for me
Ornaments of various hues and odours afreſh and afreſh.
'6. O! gentle Zephyr, when thou paſſeſt by the habitation of my fairy,
Afreſh and afreſh tell her, in whiſpers, the tale of Hafiz.'
P. 82.

This laſt beit or ſtanza, which in the original is exquiſitely tender and elegant, is poſſeſſed alſo of much beauty in the paraphraſe, though we cannot avoid thinking there is too much iteration of the word 'whiſper' in the metrical verſion. This admirable couplet reminds us ſo forcibly of a parallel paſſage in Metaſtaſio, that we muſt take the liberty of quoting it:

'Placido Zeffiretto!
Se trovi il caro oggetto,
Digli che ſei ſoſpiri,
Ma non gli dir di chi.

Limpido ruſcelletto!
Se mai t'incontri in lei,
Digli che pianto ſei
Ma non gli dir qual ciglio
Creſcer ti fa coſi.'

Of which the Engliſh reader may accept the following verſion:

Gentle zephyrs! ſhould ye find
The fond idol of my heart,
Softly whiſper 'ye are ſighs,'
But tell not from whom ye ſtart.

Limpid riv'lets! ſhould ye meet
Him, the ſource of all my woe,
Kindly murmur, 'ye are tears,'
But tell not from whom ye flow.

Before we quit this gazel, we ſhall juſt remark that the word here tranſlated *zephyr* is, in the original, *sĕbā* (صبا); and that although it imply generally a *gentle breeze*, yet its real and appropriate meaning is the *eaſt wind*, rather than the *zephyr*, which has generally been denominated the *weſt*. The ſame term we obſerve recurring in gazel X, and tranſlated in the ſame manner. We know, indeed, that it has been common thus to interpret it, and that the powerful authority both of ſir William Jones and the baron Reviſki might be advanced on the occaſion; but we are not to be ſeduced by mere names alone. We ſee no poſſible reaſon why the appropriate ſynonym of eaſt wind, or '*eaſtern breeze*,' might not be adopted, without any injury to the beauty of the poetry. In the following inimitable and parallel paſſage, in the common verſion of the Song of Solomon, we do not think any advantage could be obtained by introducing the term *zephyr* in the place of the north and ſouth wind: ch. iv. 6.

"Awake, O north-wind! and come; thou ſouth!
Blow upon my garden, that its ſpices may flow forth:
Let my beloved come into his garden, and eat its delicious fruits."

Yet the Hebrew verſe,

עוּרִי צָפוֹן וּפוֹאִי תֵימָן

might, with as much propriety as exiſts in the beit above, be rendered

Awake, O Zephyr! breath of Zephyr come!

The gazel which follows is, perhaps, the moſt exquiſite of

any in the whole diwan. It ſeems to have been regarded as ſuch both by Reviſki and the late lamented preſident, and has, in conſequence, been tranſlated by each of them. The verſion of the former is in Latin: that of the latter in our own language; and it exhibits no ſmall degree of hardihood in Mr. Hindley to have attempted it after ſo able a maſter. Indeed, we cannot but regard this as a labour altogether unneceſſary, and certainly profitleſs to our author's fame; and cordially wiſh he had beſtowed the ſame time on ſome other gazel not yet ſubmitted to the eye of an Engliſh reader.

'Fair maid of Shiraz, would'ſt thou take
My heart, and love it for my ſake,
For that dark mole my thoughts now trace
On that ſweet cheek of that ſweet face,
I would Bokhara, as I live,
And Samarcand too, freely give.

'Empty the flagon, fill the bowl,
With wine to rapture wake the ſoul:
For, Eden's ſelf, however fair,
Has nought to boaſt that can compare
With thy bleſt banks, O Rocnabad!
In their enchanting ſcen'ry clad;
Nor ought in foliage half ſo gay
As are the bow'rs of Moſelláy.

'Inſidious girls with ſyren eye,
Whoſe wanton wiles the ſoul decoy,
By whoſe bewitching charms beguil'd
Our love-ſmit town is all run wild,
My ſtoic heart ye ſteal away
As Janiſſaries do their prey!

'But, ah! no laureat lovers' praiſe
The luſtre of thoſe charms can raiſe:
For, vain are all the tricks of art,
Which would to nature ought impart;
To tints, that angeliſe the face,
Can borrow'd colours add new grace?
Can a fair cheek become more fair
By artificial moles form'd there?
Or, can a neck of mould divine
By perfum'd treſſes heighten'd ſhine?

'Be wine and muſic, then, our theme;
Let wizards of the future dream,
Which unſolv'd riddle puzzles ſtill,
And ever did, and ever will.

'By Joſeph's growing beauty mov'd,
Zuleikha look'd, and ſigh'd, and lov'd,
'Till headſtrong paſſion ſhame defy'd,
And virtue's veil was thrown aſide.

'Be thine, my fair, by counſel led,
At wiſdom's ſhrine to bow thy head;
For, lovely maids more lovely ſhine
Whoſe hearts to ſage advice incline,
Who than their ſouls more valued prize
The hoary maxims of the wiſe.

'But, tell, me, charmer, tell me why
Such cruel words my ears annoy:
Say, is it pleaſure to give pain?
Can ſland'rous gall thy mouth profane?
Forbid it, Heav'n! it cannot be!
Nought that offends can come from thee:
For, how can ſcorpion venom drip
From that ſweet ruby-colour'd lip,
Which, with good nature overſpread,
Can nought but dulcet language ſhed?

'Thy gazel-forming pearls are ſtrung,
Come, ſweetly, Hafiz, be they ſung:
For, Heav'n ſhow'rs down upon thy lays
Thoughts, which in ſtar-like cluſters blaze.' P. 47.

We ſubjoin the verſion of ſir W. Jones for a compariſon inſtead of the proſe paraphraſe.

'Sweet maid, if thou would'ſt charm my ſight,
And bid theſe arms thy neck infold;
That roſy cheek, that lily hand,
Would give thy poet more delight
Than all Bocara's vaunted gold,
Than all the gems of Samarcand.

'Boy, let yon liquid ruby flow,
And bid thy penſive heart be glad,
Whate'er the frowning zealots ſay:
Tell them, their Eden cannot ſhow
A ſtream ſo clear as Rocnabad,
A bower ſo ſweet as Moſellay.

'O! when theſe fair perfidious maids,
Whoſe eyes our ſecret haunts infeſt,
Their dear deſtructive charms diſplay;
Each glance my tender breaſt invades,
And robs my wounded ſoul of reſt,
As Tartars ſeize their deſtin'd prey.

'In vain with love our boſoms glow:
Can all our tears, can all our ſighs,
New luſtre to thoſe charms impart?
Can cheeks, where living roſes blow,
Where nature ſpreads her richeſt dyes,
Require the borrow'd gloſs of art?

'Speak not of fate:—ah! change the theme,
And talk of odours, talk of wine,
Talk of the flowers that round us bloom:
'Tis all a cloud, 'tis all a dream;
To love and joy thy thoughts confine,
Nor hope to pierce the ſacred gloom.

'Beauty has ſuch reſiſtleſs power,
That even the chaſte Egyptian dame
Sigh'd for the blooming Hebrew boy;
For her how fatal was the hour,
When to the banks of Nilus came
A youth ſo lovely and ſo coy!

'But ah! ſweet maid, my counſel hear
(Youth ſhould attend when thoſe adviſe
Whom long experience renders ſage):
While muſick charms the raviſh'd ear;
While ſparkling cups delight our eyes,
Be gay; and ſcorn the frowns of age.

'What cruel anſwer have I heard!
And yet, by heaven, I love thee ſtill;
Can aught be cruel from thy lip?
Yet ſay, how fell that bitter word
From lips which ſtreams of ſweetneſs fill,
Which nought but drops of honey ſip?

'Go boldly forth, my ſimple lay,
Whoſe accents flow with artleſs eaſe,
Like orient pearls at random ſtrung:
Thy notes are ſweet, the damſels ſay;
But O! far ſweeter, if they pleaſe
The nymph for whom theſe notes are ſung.'

Vol. iv. P. 449.

The ſtory of Joſeph and Zuleikha (for thus the Perſians denominate the wife of Potiphar) has been always in much vogue in this country, and a common ſubject of compariſon. Zuleikha is, in the original, repreſented as naturally poſſeſſed of chaſtity as well as beauty; and it is the uniform character attributed to her among the Aſiatics. In the elegant poems of Jami and Nazami (founded upon this expreſs anecdote of ſacred hiſtory), ſhe is thus delineated; in both theſe ſhe is the paragon of virtue. But ſuch, at the ſame time, they repreſent the form and accompliſhments of Joſeph, that no female was capable of beholding him with indifference; and the lovely Zuleikha only fell, becauſe every other woman muſt have fallen in the ſame ſituation. The preſent is not the only inſtance in which this tender drama is alluded to by Hafiz himſelf. In another gazel, and one of great excellence, though not para-

phraſed in the work before us, he thus boldly and figuratively addreſſes the idol of his ſoul:

ماه کنعانی من مسند مصر آن تو شر
کاه آنست کم پرورد کنی زنرانرا

'O my moon of Canaan, the throne of Egypt is thy own;
Now is the time that thou ſhouldeſt liberate thyſelf from priſon.'

In this beit Joſeph is the perſonification of beauty in general, under the metaphor of ماه کنعانی (*Mēhĭ Kēnānī*) or 'Moon of Canaan,' which was the ſymbol uniformly applied to him. *Mehi* or *meh* is probably of Babylonian or Chaldee origin, and derived from *men*: from *men*, *mehen*, *meh*, and *mehi*. But *men* ſignifies a *ſhip*; it is ſynonymous with the Egyptian ϩιπ (*hip*), and has an obvious alluſion to the arkite idolatry of the Cuſhites. It would be eaſy to prove, if this were the proper place, that the worſhip of the moon was firſt of all attached to her creſcent form—her reſemblance to the ark or arc which was conſtructed by Noah, deified in Egypt under the denomination of Oſiris, to preſerve the remnant of the human race during the univerſal deluge. Hence, according to Plutarch (De Iſid. et Oſirid.) the prieſts of Iſis, during their annual celebration of the arkite feaſt, repreſent Oſiris, or the arkite deity, under the ſymbol of μηνοειδες αγαλματιον, a little *luniform* image. Indeed it is very obvious that the Greek words μην, μηνη (*mēn*, *mēnē*), '*a month*, '*the morn*,' as well as the Latin *mens*, importing the ſame thing, and even our own term '*moon*,' are derived from the ſame radical. When in the Babylonian idolatry the *ſun* was a deity importing vigour, power, and maſculine ſtrength, the arkite or creſcent moon, and afterwards the moon generally, was made a ſymbol of beauty and excellence; and hence its application to the lovely Joſeph. But we ſhall ſhortly have an opportunity of purſuing this ſubject at a much greater length.

In the enſuing gazel of the preſent ſelection, and we ſhall conclude with this extract, the following ſtanza is very inadequate to the merit of the original:

'Oh! were ſhe but claſped in theſe arms!
Oh! how happy would then be my caſe!
No veſt that infolds her *rude* charms,
Could enjoy, like my heart, the embrace.'

The proſe paraphraſe is far ſuperior:

'Might I take her in my embraces like the garment that enfolds her,
My heart would be at reſt on becoming near her as her neareſt veſtment (*chemiſe*).'

چو پیراهن شوم آسوده خاطر
کرش همچو قبا کیرم در آغوش

There is ſo ſtrong a reſemblance in this idea with a paſſage in Barnes's Ode XX. of Anacreon (the Hafiz of Teos), that we cannot forbear quoting it.

Εγω χιτων γενοιμην,
Οπως αειφορης με.——

'O! were I, love, the robe which flows
O'er every charm that ſecret glows,
In many a lucid fold to ſwim,
And cling and grow to every limb!' MOORE.

The analogous exclamation of the empaſſioned Romeo is within the recollection of every one.

'Oh! that I were a glove upon that hand,
That I might kiſs that cheek!'

The tranſlation that has leaſt pleaſed us is that of the ſixth gazel in the preſent collection. The ſpirited interrogatory ام که میپرس which invariably cloſes every verſe in the original, and occurs twice in the firſt, is very indifferently preſerved in the Engliſh verſion.

Upon the whole, however, we think the preſent publication poſſeſſed of much merit. Mr. Hindley diſcovers a claſſical knowledge of Arabic and Perſian, and often tranſlates with felicity; and we have been induced to exceed our uſual limits, becauſe, like himſelf, we wiſh to excite the attention of the public to the polite literature of the Eaſt.

An Outline of the Hiſtory and Cure of Fever, Endemic and Contagious; more expreſsly the Contagious Fever of Jails, Ships, and Hoſpitals; the Concentrated Endemic, vulgarly the Yellow Fever of the Weſt Indies. To which is added, an Explanation of the Principles of Military Diſcipline and Economy; with a Scheme of Medical Arrangement for Armies. By Robert Jackſon, M. D. 8vo. 7s. *Boards.* Longman *and* Rees.

IN the third volume of our New Arrangement, (p. 140) we noticed Dr. Jackſon's 'Treatiſe on the Fevers of Jamaica,' which we conſidered as a work of no common promiſe, ſince it diſplayed an accuracy of diſcrimination and a preciſion of judgement on theſe ſubjects which we had not ſeen ſubſequent to the pub-

lications of Torti, Senac, and Cleghorn. The preſent 'Outline' confirms our favourable opinion; for, though we ſhall find ſomething to blame, we ſhall meet with more to commend; and, indeed, our blame ſhould be expreſſed with diffidence, ſince we find our author's ideas generally judicious, and always grounded on well-diſtinguiſhed facts.

In his preface he acknowledges his having engaged in practice without ſufficient opportunities for ſtudy, and candidly admits errors, which we ſhall again notice, from this ſource. But we need not enlarge on the medical hiſtory of the campaigns, or the diſgraceful retreats in Holland and Flanders, or that of the ſcarcely more brilliant warfare in St. Domingo. The remarks on the proper management of recruiting regiments, and the conveyance of troops to diſtant ports, we muſt recommend to the attention of military commanders, to whom it is too often excluſively committed. We ſhall only obſerve that, in attending to the ſtatements in the volume before us, the national object intruſted to them, and what may perhaps appear to ſome of more conſequence ſtill, their own character in the reſult of the expedition, will be materially aſſiſted. In this part we ſhall only remark, what is afterwards more fully inſiſted on, that diſeaſe ſeldom follows, or is owing to fatigue: it proceeds rather from the fulneſs and inactivity ſubſequent to great exertions. We well know that, in the American war, the active part, the alert of the army, was uniformly healthy. We know that, in private life, inceſſant exertions, in a healthy conſtitution, ſeldom induce diſeaſe.

'It appears in the medical hiſtory of the preſent war, that armies in Europe have been nearly deſtroyed by artificial diſeaſe,—by contagious fever, a diſeaſe which never ought to be ſeen among troops, and which will not long exiſt, where principles of ſound ſcience are known and rigidly applied in practice. In the Weſt Indies mortality has been great, and though the endemic be leſs avoidable than the contagious fever, yet it is evident, from a detail of the ſtate of health in the different poſitions in St. Domingo, that the great loſs has been chiefly owing to defects of arrangement,—to an injudicious diſpoſition of the European forces. It might reaſonably have been expected that the various informations, communicated on different occaſions, reſpecting the preſervation of health, would have produced, before this time, a diſpoſition of military forces, different from that which exiſts: For though coloniſts and merchants, whoſe object is gain, and whoſe views, in forming ſettlements, are chiefly directed to facilities of trade, may be allowed to build towns and ſtorehouſes in bays, creeks, and on the muddy banks of rivers; yet ſtateſmen, governors, and leaders of armies, who are ſuppoſed to poſſeſs the general principles of ſcience, and

who are expected to embrace, in their arrangements, the intereſts and concerns of the nation at large, will not eaſily vindicate the practice of ſtationing troops on the borders of ſwamps, ſwampy rivers, or on ſcorching plains deſtructive of health, much leſs in towns, near ſwamps and ſea-coaſts deſtructive both of health and morals, unleſs where it is found to be impoſſible, that the purpoſes of ſervice can be anſwered by other means. To determine this queſtion requires the inveſtigation of unprejudiced and capable men; the author does not enter upon the ſubject; he is aware that to offer political counſels, or to furniſh military ſuggeſtions, may be deemed preſumptuous or impertinent; but information, on the ſubject of health, is the duty of his ſtation; and convinced that health has ſuffered, and ſtill ſuffers from inattention and defects of arrangement, he could not in juſtice to that duty withhold a few remarks.' P. 99.

In this extract the attentive reader will at once perceive a diſtinction not very uſual, between *endemic* and *contagious* fever. This diſtinction muſt, however, be kept in view, as immediately connected with the ſubſequent chapter, and indeed with the whole work. Endemic fevers, viz. thoſe ariſing from the local circumſtances of the country, are, in our author's opinion, not contagious. Many are attacked at the ſame time, but Dr. Jackſon contends that this is owing to the general ſtate of the air, not to perſonal communication; that thoſe who are with the patients, who wear their clothes, &c. are not more ſubject to the diſeaſe than others not expoſed to the effluvia of the ſick: in fact, that one is owing to the miaſmata of marſhes, the other to the exhalations of the diſeaſe. We ſhould be very willing to admit this ſimplicity of idea, and indeed, on the whole, we think it true, but that ſuch unlimited doctrines may be dangerous. Allowing the ſyſtem to be correct, it muſt be ſtill conſidered that human effluvia, not in themſelves contagious, may become ſo by ſtagnation and concentration; and that the doctrine itſelf is liable to various limitations, as the fomes may be of the one or the other kind, or compounded of both; and we think we have ſeen, to adopt the language of our author, miaſmata become contagion, aſſiſted by powerful exciting cauſes. We pretend not to ſay that our experience of the effects of miaſmata has been great, but, ſo far as it has extended, contagion has been occaſionally ſuſpicious. In the epidemic catarrh, for inſtance, the action of miaſmata is moſt clear and diſcriminated. In this diſeaſe, where a number in company has been ſeized the ſame evening, contagion cannot be ſuſpected: all cannot have been equally expoſed to it, and no one is ſo much affected as to have affected the reſt. Yet when a perſon hanging over another in the evening has been ſeized the next morning, contagion on the other hand may be ſuſpected. Again: diſor-

ders originally endemic may be propagated by contagion, as the plague. We mention theſe facts, not to invalidate our author's doctrine, but to limit it, and to prevent injury from truſting it too implicitly and at all times. But perhaps he may mean only to include general fever, and we truſt his hint will not be loſt: we muſt once more return to the ſubject.

In this ſtatement of our author's opinion we have anticipated much of what he has ſaid on the ſubject of remote cauſes. When he connects miaſmata with vegetation, and ſeems to reſolve his two cauſes of fever into vegeto-animal and animal, we cannot always agree with him. We now know that freſh earth will decompoſe the atmoſphere, and abſorb its oxygen: we know that hydrogen is exhaled from marſhes, and from agents ſo powerful the moſt deſtructive effects may follow.

The caſes of contagious and endemic fever in the fourth chapter, and the deſcription of the contagious fever in the Britiſh army in England, Holland, and Ireland, as well as the more concentrated endemic of St. Domingo, deſerve our commendation, as perſpicuous and accurate. The account of the latter is divided into the periods of irritation; of oppreſſed or impaired energy; of the dark cloudy aſpect, with irritation or more frequently oppreſſion; and of the remitting or intermitting ſtage. Diſſections conſequent upon fevers of the worſt kind are not common, and we ſhall therefore tranſcribe our author's obſervations on the appearances evinced after death.

'Appearances, upon diſſection, are different, according as the cauſe acts generally or locally, or according to the mode of the action. In the firſt form of fever, where the irritation is great, the re-action of the vaſcular ſyſtem violent in the early ſtage, irregular determinations and deſtruction of organs are commonly the conſequence:—the liver, the brain, and very frequently the inner ſurface of the ſtomach exhibit marks of derangement. The ſecond form ſeldom terminates fatally, till the external appearances of the third are in ſome degrees preſent. When the third is rapid in its courſe, the ſpongy organs,—the liver and lungs are ſometimes, as it were, ſuffocated or oppreſſed,—the lungs are like a bag filled with grumous blood,—the liver and ſpleen diſtended with black blood, in ſuch a manner that their coverings are ſometimes ruptured. In the ſecond, and in the more protracted caſes of the third, the venous ſyſtem is turgid, as if filled by injection.

'The following are the more uſual appearances, according to the changes produced upon the principal organs.

'Head. The veſſels of the head, in the firſt form are frequently full and diſtended with blood; in ſome particular inſtances, marks of inflammation in the membranes, adheſions and ſometimes cheeſy exudations near the falx:—water was found in the ventricles on ſome occaſions, but this was by no means a common occurrence—

it ſeemed to be more frequent in diſeaſes of type than in the violent continued fever;—the diſtenſion and fulneſs through the whole volume of the brain was conſiderable. In the ſecond form, particular marks of inflammation were ſeldom viſible, but the venous ſyſtem was uniformly and generally diſtended, as if filled by a ſucceſsful injection; yet upon the whole the general diſtenſion of the brain was leſs conſpicuous than in the former:—the plexus choroides was often a clotted maſs of blood.

'Thorax. In the firſt form, the lungs do not often ſhow much appearance of diſeaſe; in the ſecond, they are irregularly ſpotted,—the back parts particularly are black with ſtagnated blood; in the third, they often appear, through the whole extent, like a ſponge filled with black blood, but without any traces of actual inflammation.

'Abdomen. In opening the abdomen, the omentum and its appendages generally appear of a faded, olive, grey and duſky colour; the blood veſſels are large and diſtended, as if from injection, but there are ſeldom ſigns of actual inflammation; the exterior aſpect of the ſtomach and inteſtines correſpond in colour with that of the omentum, grey, dark and marcid; the blood veſſels are much diſtended, but actual inflammation is rarely apparent; the appearance of the inner ſurface is ſeldom uniform through the whole,—the veins are generally diſtended; but beſides this, the inner ſurface of the ſtomach, in the firſt form particularly, often exhibits large ſpots, or circles of a bright red, reſembling actual inflammation, in the centre of which are frequently ſeen ſmall points, like beginning gangrene; the villous coat is alſo looſe,—in the act of ſeparation, and actually ſeparated in ſome places; in the ſecond form, more frequently than in the others, the colour of the inner coat of the inteſtinal canal is like brick duſt, the coat hanging looſe and almoſt ſeparated; ſometimes this takes place uniformly through the whole tract, ſometimes it is confined to particular places or a congeries of diſtended blood-veſſels, entangled in the mucous membrane, appear in cluſters to beſpangle the ſurface with bloody ſpots; the cavity is ſometimes alſo lined or filled with black grumous blood. In the firſt form, or where black vomiting has taken place, liquor, reſembling the grounds of coffee, is found in the cavity of the ſtomach; where the vomiting has not been black, the liquor found in the ſtomach is generally pituitous, viſcid, and with flakes of mucus, ſeemingly portions of the inner coat.

'Liver. The appearances of the liver are various: where marks of re-action in the general ſyſtem have been conſiderable, and where a local determination has taken place in extent and degree, the veſſels of the liver bear marks of great diſtenſion; the blood-veſſels and biliary ducts are then often preternaturally enlarged,—full of fluid blood and black bile; the colour is ſometimes variegated like marble, with ſhades of red and yellow. In the third form, particularly when of rapid courſe, the liver appears ſometimes un-

commonly large, black and diſtended, as if ſuffocated with blood, the membranes are ſometimes ruptured, or they give way in the act of handling the liver. In the firſt form, or where black vomiting has taken place, the gall bladder is more or leſs full of bile, often black and thick like tar or molaſſes; the gall ducts are enlarged, and the bile is traced into the duodenum, tinging, with its ſooty colour, the contents of the ſtomach and inteſtines.

'Spleen. The ſpleen is ſometimes diſtended, ready to burſt,—or the membranes are actually ruptured; ſometimes it is more flaccid, or like a bag of grumous blood.

'Bladder of urine. The bladder is often ſmall and contracted, the ſides of it denſe and firm, as if long in a ſtate of conſtriction: it ſeldom contains urine, or it contains it only in ſmall quantity: on the internal ſurface are often found bloody ſpots, or clots of blood, entangled in the mucous membrane, circular and inſulated, like the impreſſion of the point of a bloody finger on a pale ſurface.' P. 208.

Dr. Jackſon next proceeds to examine the characteriſtics of theſe two kinds of fever; that proceeding from the vegeto-animal ſource, and that ariſing from the living fomes of contagion. The appearances of theſe diſeaſes are nearly the ſame, yet it is neceſſary to diſtinguiſh them.

'In forming an opinion of the exiſtence or non-exiſtence of contagion, it will be neceſſary, on all occaſions, to bear in mind, that as the concluſion is a matter of much importance in ſociety, it muſt not be admitted, ſo as to be acted upon, without the moſt rigid examination, and the concurrence of many corroborating teſtimonies. If various perſons, brought into hoſpitals on account of accidents, become affected, in a certain courſe of time, with a fever not connected with their conditions, little doubt will remain that a contagion exiſts, or that the fever originates from that ſource; if the medical officers, nurſes and attendants become generally affected with the fever prevailing in thoſe hoſpitals, while a ſimilar diſeaſe does not appear in neighbouring places, or only as traced to this ſource, the concluſion of contagion may be ſafely admitted; if clothes, bedding, even the perſons of men, from this infected ſource, be removed to a diſtant place, a diſeaſe ariſing in this place, and extending itſelf to others, may be juſtly concluded as proceeding from contagion. Under the above circumſtances the exiſtence of contagion may be conſidered as poſitive; under the following it is preſumptive, but not certain. If the form of fever, in a country where the character of the endemic is ſtrongly marked, be irregular, fluctuating,—not exactly obſerving the periods of tertian, ſimple, or compound, there are grounds to ſuſpect a cauſe of contagion. This was particularly the caſe on the continent in the campaign 1794. The ſcene of that campaign was laid in a country where intermitting fever is the reigning diſeaſe, yet genuine intermitting fever ap-

peared very rarely, in ſuch part of the Britiſh army as fell within the obſervation of the author. The diſeaſe was fluctuating in its form;—a febrile period of three, or of five days, was followed by a remiſſion of uncertain duration,—followed in its turn, by a renewal of febrile motions, ceaſing and recurring at intervals,—ſometimes for a conſiderable length of time. The opinion of the exiſtence of contagion, though not poſitive, will be ſtrongly preſumptive, where a certain form of diſeaſe, fever, flux, or ulcers of the legs, appears in a ſociety or iſolated claſs of people, but does not extend without the circle, unleſs from immediate communication. This was the caſe on the continent and in Ireland; medical officers ſuffered,—military officers, living under the ſame general atmoſphere, but little connected with the ſubjects ſpecified, were ſtrangers to ſickneſs. When fever prevails epidemically in a town, portion of a town, or diſtrict of country, and when nurſes, phyſicians, and attendants on the ſick, or even occaſional viſitors in the diſtricts, become affected with ſimilar diſeaſe, the exiſtence of contagion is believed to be eſtabliſhed; but this, in fact, is by no means the caſe; for the cauſe of diſeaſe generally diffuſed in the atmoſphere of the diſtrict, infects thoſe who enter its circle without the neceſſity of communication with diſeaſed bodies.' P. 216.

To this is added a want of power to propagate fever at a diſtance from its ſource; and for this reaſon, prior to our having read the volume before us, we obſerved that the propagation of the yellow fever was not to be feared, unleſs with it we could import the autumnal conſtitutions of the Pennſylvanians. Our author thinks with us reſpecting the nature of this formidable ſcourge of the United States, and ſuppoſes it to be the uſual endemic of the country, the common autumnal remittent. This opinion he ſupports with many ſatisfactory arguments and well-ſelected facts.

The prognoſis is judiciouſly detailed, and the changes on the days, uſually ſtyled critical, ably ſupported. Dr. Jackſon adds one obſervation, we believe new in the doctrine of infection, viz. that, previous to the fever actually forming, the ſeptenary period is obſervable; for after receiving infection, though nauſea and great inconvenience be for a time felt, no fever appears till the ſeventh, and ſometimes not till the fourteenth day. There ſeems, in his opinion, ſome change going on in the fluids, before the cauſe aſſumes ſuch a power as to be capable of producing the violent effects we have ſo often occaſion to lament.

The proximate cauſe of fever has never yet been aſcertained. Our author ſcarcely adds to our knowledge; yet he approaches the problem with ſo much judgement, that we ſeem to perceive it in a clearer light.

'The human body is formed to be acted upon by external cauſes; life is ſupported by the application of appropriate ones—it

is endangered by the oppoſite: the product of faulty combinations of matters,—animal and vegetable, and the ſecretions from deranged action of the living ſyſtem, ſeem to poſſeſs an irritating quality,—a quality, in conſequence of which, when in a certain ſtate, or when at a certain point of fitneſs, a train of unnatural motions are excited, diſturbing, interrupting, or in a manner ſuſpending the alternate and uniform action and reſt of the irritable and moving parts of the body, but not diſturbing the action of every part, or of every ſeries of parts, in the ſame proportion. When the chief force of the cauſe is exerted upon parts of locomotion, tremors, ſtartings, and various agitations prevail; when upon the heart and arteries, the motions become irritated, and the current of circulation is diſturbed; when upon the veins and colourleſs veſſels, parts leſs capable of expreſſing action, the motions ſeem torpid and languid, the circulation is ſlow, and the current finally ſtagnates; when locally on organs or parts of the body, the appearances are more complex. Sore legs, inflamed eyes, diarrhœa, and peripneumony are frequent forms of the local action of fever. When theſe are repreſſed, by a new action excited in the part, general fever, or other local affections frequently ariſe. The cauſe which directs this action of fever to organs or ſeries of parts deſerves notice; it ſeems to be no other than the condition of irritability in parts,—in other words, than the diminiſhed power of reſiſting cauſes which diſturb the ordinary and healthy operations of the ſyſtem,—in many caſes accidental, or ariſing from cuſtoms and habit. In this manner, and in conſequence of this accumulated irritability, from preceding habits of action, the locomotive powers, the heart and arteries are principally acted upon by the cauſe of fever, among the labouring and active claſſes of men, the veins and colourleſs veſſels, among the ſedentary and indolent, the alimentary canal and its connections among the pampered and luxurious. In the firſt caſe, action appears to be increaſed, and the fever in conſequence is named inflammatory; in the ſecond, there is little active effort, the uſual train of movement is diſturbed or impeded, and the fever is denominated ſlow, nervous or putrid; in the third, the whole parts of the organ are involved, and the mode of action is more complex, but the form of fever, reſulting from it, is uſually denominated bilious.

'Under thoſe circumſtances, cauſes, which alter this figure of locally diſeaſed action, give riſe to commotion in the general ſyſtem or in a ſeries of parts, till ſuch time as another diſeaſed action is produced in a remote part, or upon an excretory organ. The changes effected on this action, by accident or artificial means, are often rapid; and commonly effected through channels of communication not very obvious to the ſenſes: The manner of the whole is indeed obſcure; and it is not pretended that the operation is explained, by what is here ſaid. It however appears, from the moſt general view of things, that the febrile cauſe is a cauſe of irritation, diſturbing, but not increaſing in a natural manner, the action of the moving fibre,—on the contrary interrupting, impeding, and as

it were ſuſpending the operation eſſential to health and life; by which means, the expreſſion of its effects principally conſiſts in debility and impaired energy.' P. 251.

Dr. Jackſon, in this explanation, comes very near what we have often ſaid, that fever conſiſts in a change of balance, a diſturbed equilibrium, probably both in the nervous and circulatory ſyſtems. This we think ariſes from a debilitating cauſe; for debility, with diſturbed arrangement, conſtitutes the whole of fever, ſo far as it can be judged of by obvious ſymptoms; nor does our author's idea of that irritation, which does *not* 'increaſe the action of the moving fibre,' greatly miſtate againſt the idea.

The eleventh chapter, on the cure of fever, we think a very valuable one; but we need not analyſe the whole; it will be ſufficient to ſpeak of ſome of the more leading principles. In the early ſtages, the uſe of James's powder, joined with calomel, is ſpoken of with reſpect. Free air is of courſe recommended, and accident ſeems to have ſuggeſted the utility of joining to free air, exerciſe in a ſpring cart. We well know the advantages of exerciſe in open air, yet journeys of fatigue we have wiſhed to avoid; for common fevers, not apparently dangerous, have been more frequently fatal, ſo far as our obſervation has extended, when, from neceſſity, the patient has been removed from a diſtance in the earlier ſtages. We mention this not to oppoſe our author's remark, but to prevent it from being too haſtily adopted without due conſideration in this climate.

In the cure of the endemic fever of America, and the Weſt Indies, the propriety of bleeding has been much canvaſſed. Our author is a friend to the practice, on what we think judicious grounds. When the fever is *forming*, his great object is, by a bold deciſive conduct, to change 'forcibly the *exiſting ſtate of things*.' The advice is judicious, though the language is not exactly what we ſhould have choſen. A large bleeding is one of his deciſive meaſures, and this is followed by James's powder, calomel, and affuſion of cold water, as well as moving the patient in a carriage through the pure air, ſheltered from the ſun. In the ſecond ſtage, that of oppreſſion, bleeding is ſtill recommended, and it was in this ſtate we attempted to find ſome clue to ſupport and explain Dr. Ruſh's facts, in our review of his work on the bilious fever of Philadelphia. The bleeding, in this ſtate, muſt not be ſlight, but continued 'till a change in the *exiſting ſtate* of the circulation be affected.' This our readers may recollect was the ſituation of Dr. Dover's patient, and the rule of his conduct. Even in the third ſtage, bleeding and ſtimulating purgatives are, in Dr. Jackſon's opinion, highly uſeful. The more

minute and particular management of the remedies cannot be abridged with advantage. We are ſurpriſed that our author had not reſted ſomewhat on the authority of Dr. Moſeley, who has recommended a ſimilar practice; but Dr. Jackſon is very ſparing in general of drawing from any ſource but his own. In the account of different methods of cure, the conduct of the French phyſicians, uſually ſo much extolled, is ſpoken of and explained with great candour. On the whole, he does not conſider their ſucceſs as greater. The progreſs of fever is, he thinks, leſs rapid under their management: recovery is alſo more ſlow, but relapſe is leſs frequent. The method of cure by calomel does not meet our author's approbation.

The conſequences of fever are very accurately detailed, and the local action of a febrile cauſe, either as thrown on the inteſtines producing diarrhœa and dyſentery, or on the ſkin occaſioning eruptions or ulcers, carefully examined. The ſubjects of the two laſt chapters are 'prevention' and 'convaleſcence,' which need not detain us.

The ſecond part contains an 'Explanation of the Principles of Military Diſcipline, Military Œconomy, and a Scheme of Medical Arrangement for Armies.' The obſervations, in this part, are bold, original, and we fear unfaſhionable. The author's object is to abandon the ſtiff ſyſtem of German tactics; to familiariſe the ſoldier to labour, to active exertions, to a dependence on his own powers;—above all, to inſpire his mind with a generous patriotiſm, with a love of virtue, and a ſenſe of true religion, which, in the moment of active ſervice, will give an energy and ſpirit which can never be ſuggeſted by the ſyſtem at preſent adopted, of ſtraight lines, of ſlow and formal motions.

On the whole, we think this work truly original, and that it diſplays much uſeful information; and we can recommend the author as a man of ability, judgement, and obſervation.

An Hiſtorical Deſcription of ancient and modern Rome; alſo of the Works of Art, particularly in Architecture, Sculpture, and Painting. To which are added, a Tour through the Cities and Towns in the Environs of that Metropolis, and an Account of the Antiquities found at Gabia. Carefully collated with the beſt Authorities, by J. Salmon, Antiquary, late of Rome. Embelliſhed with beautiful Engravings from original Drawings. 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 1*l.* 10*s.* *Boards.* Taylor. 1800.

NUMEROUS, in a variety of languages, are the deſcriptions of Rome, once the political, and afterwards the religious, tyrant of the European world. Yet we do not recollect having met with any minute and ſatisfactory detail in our own

tongue, and the defect is attempted to be ſupplied by the preſent performance. We cannot, however, congratulate the writer upon his judgement or abilities; and he is evidently more converſant in the hoſt of trifling Italian guides for ſtrangers than in the grand ſources of perſonal and experimental information. Hence his work, which has too much the ſemblance of a mere catalogue, is peruſed without intereſt, and laid aſide without recollection. But let the author ſpeak for himſelf.

'The claſſes of readers to whom the following work will be intereſting and permanently uſeful, are ſo numerous, that it will not be ſurpriſing ſhould an enumeration of ſo vaſt and ramified a detail of the fine works of art, collected and accumulated through ſucceſſive centuries, by princes, nobles, pontiffs, and religious communities, be ſometimes tedious to thoſe who cannot feaſt their eyes with beholding all they ſee deſcribed in the following pages. But on theſe occaſions the author has recollected the peculiar wants, the urgent demands and ſolicitations of men of taſte, who, during his twelve years reſidence at Rome, conſtantly complained to him that ſo magnificent a city, ſo vaſt a repoſitory of the arts, ſhould be totally deſtitute of any work adapted to the Engliſh connoiſſeur: a work which he might carry with him to the various objects that ancient city preſents, and derive ſome aſſiſtance, as from a guide, to direct his reſearches or his ſtudies, among thoſe beauties he had travelled ſo far to admire, or in purſuit of that taſte it was his deſire to form and to correct.

'To theſe he would point out a few of the fineſt models ſelected by artiſts for their peculiar ſtudy, and particularly thoſe on which architects have fixed their eye.

'The firſt and pureſt ſpecimen of the Corinthian order is exhibited in the three columns of the Campo Vaccino, ſuppoſed to have belonged to the Temple of Jupiter Stator. Both their proportions and their execution juſtly render them archetypes for ſtudy, ſince even Palladio has beſtowed on them the higheſt encomiums of admiration.

'The columns of the Temple of Concord are the only eminent ſpecimens in Rome of the Ionic order, where the volutes of the capital ſtand in a diagonal direction. Had they been equally well executed with ſome other remains of ancient magnificence, they would have been perfect models. From them Scamozzi compiled his Ionic capital, ſo generally admired and adopted. The arch of Titus is a work of moſt excellent ſculpture: the baſſo-relievos that adorn it exhibit the true forms of the ſacred veſſels brought from Jeruſalem, and its columns are the beſt models of the Compoſite order.

'The Pantheon is by many eſteemed a perfect model of a peculiar ſtile of architecture: while in works of utility the aqueducts and other public buildings demonſtrate the great and permanent advantages ariſing from a national attention to national accommodation.

'The beſt modern ſpecimens of architecture are thoſe of Michael Angelo, Vignola, and Sangallo. The deſigns of Bernini were grand and full of effect, though he led the way for many innovators. The foremoſt of theſe was Borromini, whoſe extravagant works are disfigured by caprice and a conſtant thirſt for novelty.

'In ſculpture, one of the firſt and boldeſt ſpecimens among the moderns is the Moſes of Michael Angelo, in the church of St. Peter in vinculis.

'In painting, the antique freſco of a Roman marriage, at the Villa Aldobrandini, and the arabeſques copied by Raphael and his ſcholars at the Logie of the Vatican, which laſt are cloſe compilations from antiques, exhibit the ſame ſuperiority in compoſition, deſign, and execution, poſſeſſed by the ancients in architecture and ſculpture. Among the moderns, the paintings and freſcos of that immortal artiſt are the fineſt ſtudies. In his School of Athens and his Heliodorus are diſplayed the grandeſt compoſition with the pureſt outline and moſt elevated expreſſion. In Michael Angelo's fine paintings in the Cappella Siſtina are many ſublime and accurate figures. The Deſcent from the Croſs by Daniel da Volterra, the freſcos of Domenichino in the churches of St. Andrea della Valle and St. Carlo Catinari, together with the Aurora of Guido, and his picture of the Trinity in the church of Trinità de' Peligrini, are works deſerving the moſt critical examination.

'No hiſtory-painter ſhould neglect to ſtudy the general ſtile of architecture in Rome, particularly that of the middle ages. The forms it exhibits may be copied as claſſical, and are well adapted to back grounds through an extenſive range of hiſtorical painting. It is thus that Nicholas Pouſſin has adorned moſt of his works with excellent ſucceſs and effect.

'It would be impoſſible here to detail complete rules for the ſtudy of the artiſt, or pourtray the fainteſt idea of ſo varied, ſo comprehenſive a collection of antiquities, as ſtill remain in Rome, once the metropolis of empire, afterwards of religion, and ſtill of the arts'. Vol. i. P. iv.

Our author ſeems a ſtranger to Mr. Gibbon's maſterly deſcription, towards the cloſe of his Hiſtory, otherwiſe he would have intereſted his reader by following the grand views of that able narrator. Nardini, indeed, appears to be his chief ſource of information; and as it would be beneath the dignity of criticiſm to explain the merits, or expoſe the defects of a mere catalogue, we ſhall content ourſelves with a few extracts and obſervations, beginning with the author's *learned* account of the foundation of Rome.

'On the twenty-firſt of April, in the year of the world 4447, according to the Roman chronology, and according to that of Giovanni Lucido, in the year 3208, in the fourth olympiad, ſeven hundred and fifty-three years before Chriſt, in the reign of Ahaz,

king of the Jews, four hundred and thirty-two years after the deſtruction of Troy, Romulus, in his eighteenth year, began building his city on the Palatine hill. But it is believed there was a city built on the ſcite of Rome long before Romulus, by a perſon called Roma, daughter of Ulyſſes and Italia, and that this city being deſtroyed, Romulus rebuilt it; beginning to mark out the walls with an ox and a cow yoked to a plough, in the Ara Maxima, where afterwards was the forum Boarium, now the churches of St. George in Velabro and St. Anaſtaſia, thence through the Circus Maximus, and turning to the left, towards the church of St. Gregory and the Coloſſeum, through the garden of St. Mary la Nuova, in a ſtraight line to the hill of Saturn, now the Campidoglio, and returning to the left, to the ſpot where he began; thus forming a ſquare, which, encloſing the two fore-mentioned hills, and the ſpace between them, was capable of containing many more inhabitants than he had with him at that time. This new city was called Rome, that is, in Greek, *fortreſs*, in Hebrew, *great*. When it was finiſhed he had an army of three thouſand foot and three hundred horſe; and at his death, which happened in his fifty-fourth year, and the thirty-ſixth of his reign, he had forty thouſand foot, and near a thouſand horſe. In memory of this event, the Romans kept an annual feſtival. The emperor Philip, in commemoration of it, inſtituted ſecular games. And the ſenate and people of Rome have ſtill an inviolable law, by which a vacation is obſerved in all their tribunals, to celebrate its memory.' Vol. i. P. 3.

All this miſerable proſe is more worthy of the reign of James I. than of the preſent enlightened æra; and though Mr. Salmon delights in calling himſelf an antiquary, we would adviſe him to be leſs of the antiquary in his ſtyle and manner, or he will never be underſtood by modern readers. To what miſerable etymologiſt he is indebted for his derivation of the word Rome we know not; but he is wrong both in his Greek and Hebrew. The Latin Roma is obviouſly derived from the Greek Ῥωμη (*Rōmē*) which means *ſtrength* or *courage*. The Greeks obtained the term from the Egyptians, with whom Ρωμει ſignified 'a man' or 'manly;' and the Egyptians from the Chaldees, with whom רום (*Rōm*) implied a ſimilar idea. Our next extract ſhall be from his account of the Capitol.

'The Campidoglio. This hill was firſt called Mons Saturnius, from Saturn, who firſt lived here; and, in the time of Romulus, the Rock or Fortreſs. But we ſhall ſoon prove that the rock was only that part towards the Tiber. It was called Capitolinus from a human head found here in digging the foundation of the temple of Jupiter in the time of Tarquinius Priſcus, and is now corrupted into Campidoglio.

'Among the many celebrated edifices that formerly occupied this

hill, the principal was the Aſylum, erected by Romulus in order to people his new city. The houſe of Romulus was compoſed of canes, ruſhes, &c. and every year the prieſts ſuperſtitiouſly repaired it with ſimilar materials. Here was the Tabularium or Archive, where were depoſited the laws and conſulta of the ſenate, and every other public act, written on tables of bronze. Veſpaſian repaired the Capitol, and had three thouſand new tables made, the former having been defaced, when the library and other buildings were deſtroyed by lightning. It is ſuppoſed to have ſtood where the arches and doric columns are now ſeen, behind the Senators' Palace, towards the Campo Vaccino. In the lower apartments was a ſchool for the liberal arts, called the Athenian ſchool, and inſtituted by the emperor Aurelian. The library was eſtabliſhed by Domitian, and is ſaid to have been burnt in the civil war againſt Vitellius. Here was the Curia Calabra, where the minor pontifex uſed to convoke the people, and proclaim the feſtivals from the calends to the lunar nones. Here alſo ſtood the houſe of Manlius, the defender of the rock, deſtroyed on account of the treachery of its maſter. The temple of Juno Moneta was built on its ſite. The number of temples on this hill was very conſiderable: ſome make them amount to ſixty. But the great quantity of ſtatues in marble, metal, ſilver, and gold, erected to heroes who had deſerved well of the republic, cauſing great confuſion, Auguſtus removed great part of them to the Campus Martius.

'All theſe noble edifices, once the ornament of the miſtreſs of the world, have fallen a victim to the ravages of time, and the ſtill more deſtructive plunder of invading barbarians. At firſt this hill was only acceſſible from the ſouth; but ſince the Campus Martius was inhabited, another road was opened towards the north. The firſt among the moderns who promoted the decoration of the Campidoglio was pope Paul III. who, after a deſign of Buonarotti, conſtructed the ſpacious ſteps.

'The two lioneſſes of Egyptian marble at the foot of theſe ſteps, whoſe mouths ſerve for fountains, were brought from the temple of Iſis. The torſo or trunk of a ſtatue in porphyry, with admirable drapery, is ſuppoſed to be a Roma. The two grand coloſſal ſtatues of Greek marble at the top of the ſteps, one repreſenting Caſtor, the other Pollux, with their horſes, were found in digging the foundation of a ſchool for the Jews. The two grand trophies of Marius, on the baluſtrade on each ſide the ſteps, finely ſculptured in marble, were brought from the Caſtello dell' Acqua Marzia, near the church of St. Euſebius, on the Eſquiline hill. The other two ſtatues are the ſons of Conſtantine, and were found in his baths. Of the two columns that follow, one is the miliarium, from which were reckoned the miles on all the roads. It was erected by order of the emperor Veſpaſian. The other, with the metal ball, is ſaid to contain the aſhes of Trajan.

'In the middle of the ſquare is the equeſtrian ſtatue of Marcus

Aurelius, of Corinthian metal, found in a vineyard near the Scala Santa in the time of Pius IV. and then ſet up in the Piazza del Laterano. But Paul III. in 1530, had it removed hither by Buonarotti, and placed on this large pedeſtal of marble, brought from the baths of Trajan.

The three palaces belong to the Roman magiſtrates. Thoſe to the right and left are ornamented with porticoes, within and without, from a deſign of Buonarotti. That to the left was appropriated by Clement XII. for a gallery of ſtatues, buſts, baſſo-relievos, and other antiquities; and the collection was increaſed by Benedict XIV. with many other ſcarce and beautiful marbles. Oppoſite the entrance is the famous recumbent ſtatue of Marforius, ſo called from the Forum of Mars, where it was found. It forms the principal figure of a fountain, over which are four ſtatues in the habit of veſtals. In the niches at the ſides are two antique ſatyrs, with baſkets of grapes on their heads. To the left is a ſtatue dreſſed in the toga conſularis. In the door-ways are two termini, and three conſular faſces, with a head of Plato over each door-frame. To the right of the entrance are many prætorian inſcriptions, a ſow ſuckling her young, found in the Via Appia, and a tripod of fine Parian marble, of exquiſite workmanſhip, found in Adrian's villa at Tivoli. Under the architraves, at the ſides, are two large Egyptian idols, one of baſaltes, with a turret on her head, and hieroglyphics on her back and ſides; the other is of red oriental granite, with the flower lotus on her head, repreſenting Iſis. It was found in the villa Veroſpi, in the Via Salaria. Here alſo are many ſepulchral marbles and ſome urns, bearing inſcriptions. To the left is the large tomb of marble, in which are ſaid to have been depoſited the aſhes of Alex. Severus, and Julia Mammea his mother, found in the time of Urban VIII. in the Via Tuſculana. It is ornamented with hiſtorical baſſo-relievos. On the cover are the figures of the ſame emperor and his mother in a recumbent poſture, finely executed. The front is ſuppoſed to repreſent the alliance between the Romans and Sabines. The principal figures are Romulus ſitting in the curule chair, and Tatius. On the right is an augur ſitting, with other perſons looking on; and on the left a groupe of armed ſoldiers. Near this is a fragment of one of the eight ſtatues that adorned the triumphal arch of Conſtantine. Oppoſite to this is a bronze foot of coloſſal ſize. In the middle of the front is a pedeſtal with a baſſo-relievo, and a figure with an axe in the left hand, repreſenting the province of Hungary, as may be ſeen from the following inſcription—"Imperii Romani Provincia;" and on the baſe "Ungariæ." Towards the ſtairs leading to the gallery, in a niche on the right, is a ſtatue of Pomona, with a muſical inſtrument in her right hand, a bunch of grapes in her left, and another inſtrument under her foot: all demonſtrating her joy at the abundance of the harveſt. In the niche on the left is a fine ſtatue without a head, ſuppoſed to be an Apollo. At the feet of theſe ſtatues are two urns, on one of which is ſculp-

tured a female figure ſurrounded by ſea-monſters; and on the other a hunt. Next to theſe are two altars. On that to the right are expreſſed in baſſo-relievo the labours of Hercules; and upon it is a ſybil's head. Contiguous to this is a ſepulchral marble, with a foot of Hercules and a fragment of the Hydra. The other altar to the left is ſculptured with the birth of Jupiter, and upon it is the ſtatue of Endymion with his dog. Then follows a naked Jupiter, and a ſtatue of Minerva. At the ſides are two pedeſtals with inſcriptions found in the pyramid of Caius Ceſtus. On theſe pedeſtals are two ſtatues of Amazons of excellent workmanſhip; and next to theſe a cippo or cinerary urn. One ſide bears the inſcription "Salvos venire," and a woman ſitting with the helm of a ſhip in her right hand, and a cornucopia on her left: on the other ſide is a woman on a car, with a ſhield in her hand, and the words "Salvos ire." Next to this is an altar with ſome half relievos, and upon it another Minerva.' Vol. i. p. 59.

It is unneceſſary to point out to the learned reader many miſtakes in this extract; ſuch as that concerning Hungary, a name and region unknown till the tenth century; and we are ſorry to obſerve that the work abounds with errors equally puerile and glaring.

The account of that ſublime edifice, the Coloſſeo, or amphitheatre of Titus, we ſhall tranſcribe entire, as one of the author's beſt ſpecimens of compoſition.

'This wonderful monument of the magnificence and luxury of the ancient Romans, ſtands on the ſpot formerly occupied by a pond encloſed within the walls of Nero's palace, of which Suetonius writes, "Ad inſtar maris circumſpectum, edificiis ad urbium ſpeciem." This lake being dried up, Flavius Veſpaſian, in the year of Chriſt 72, began this celebrated edifice, for public exhibitions and feſtivals, on a plan formed by Auguſtus, nearly in the then center of the city. It was finiſhed by his ſon Titus in five years, and was the work of thirty thouſand Jews, brought by him to Rome as ſlaves. He dedicated it to the memory and name of his father. At the opening of this ſtupendous pile, on the day of dedication, five thouſand wild beaſts were killed, and that cruel ſpectacle was repeated for a hundred days ſucceſſively, while gold to the amount of ten millions was diſperſed among the people. Its architecture is wonderfully fine, being compoſed of very large ſtones, and conſiſting of four ranges of arches, decorated and ſupported by very thick columns of the Doric, Ionic, Corinthian, and Compoſite orders. The portico that ſurrounded it was 2350 feet in circumference, its longer diameter 845, and the tranſverſe 700; the arena or ſpace in the middle allotted to the combats 410, and its height 222. It had ſeats for eighty-ſeven thouſand perſons, and ſtanding room for twenty thouſand more, without incommoding each other. The numbers over the arches marked the entrance aſſigned to their reputed ranks;

and at every four arches was an interior flight of ſteps, alſo numbered to prevent confuſion. To defend the ſpectators from the rays of the ſun, it was covered with a ſheet of cloth, ſupported by large beams of metal acroſs the building, reſting in the holes round the top, and from which odoriferous waters were ſhed, and fell in a refreſhing miſt among the people. In the upper arches were ſtatues; and in ſome places the fine ornamental ſtucco ſtill remains. The middle was paved with large ſtones, covered with fine ſand. This pavement is now buried twenty-five feet under ground. Round the arena were dens for the wild beaſts. The ſeats for the ſpectators were ranged like an infinite number of ſteps ſurrounding the whole arena, aſcending one above another to the ſummit of the building. On the firſt and moſt commodious for viewing the combats was the throne of the emperor, ſuperbly decorated; and adjoining to it other balconies for the princes of the imperial blood. By the ſide of theſe were placed the magiſtrates, viz. cenſors, conſuls, prætors, ædiles, tribunes of the people, pontifices, ambaſſadors, and other foreigners of diſtinction. Next to theſe were the ſenators and Roman knights. The reſt of the amphitheatre was occupied by the people. There were two large flights of ſteps on the outſide, for the further convenience of the ſpectators, and to divide the crowd. The preſent remains of this magnificent work are ſaid to be leſs than half the original pile. The reſt is ruined, partly by the injury of time, but much more by the Goths, when they plundered Rome, and by the Romans themſelves, on account of the valuable pieces of metal by which the ſtones were faſtened together, in the ſame manner as the arches of Titus and Conſtantine. But plunder was not the only cauſe of the ruin of this ſuperb monument of antiquity. At a period when ſuperſtition had driven ſcience from the mind, this noble ſtructure, erected for public pleaſure and amuſement, was dilapidated by the Romans, who aſked permiſſion of Theodoric the Goth to repair the walls of the city with its materials; but after having proceeded to a conſiderable extent, it was obſerved that the licence granted was directed to the magiſtrates and people of Catania, ſo to employ the antiquities of that place. Afterwards, under Paul II. the church of St. Auguſtine and the palace of St. Mark were conſtructed with the ſame materials; and cardinal Riario built the Cancellaria, and cardinal Farneſe the Farneſian palace, out of its ruins. Joſephus informs us, that in the middle of this amphitheatre was an altar dedicated to Jupiter Latiaris, on which it was the cuſtom to ſacrifice in honour of the ſubject for which the games were celebrated. This ſpot is now occupied by a croſs. Thirteen ſmall altar pieces ſurround the arena, repreſenting the paſſion of Chriſt; and a chapel, built with the charitable contributions of paſſengers and ſtrangers, under the care of a hermit, is erected under the farther gate, in honour of the martyrs who have ſuffered here, as Juſtin the philoſopher, and a celebrated defender of the Chriſtian ſyſtem, Ignatius biſhop of Antioch, who diſputed with Trajan, and an in-

finite number of others. Benedict XIV. introduced the exerciſe of the via crucis, by a brotherhood, who have an oratory contiguous to the church of St. Coſmus and St. Damian. It was called the Coloſſeum from a coloſſal ſtatue of Nero, which ſtood near it. This ſtatue was one hundred and twenty feet high, and ſurrounded with ſolar rays of twenty-two feet, for the emperor pretended to reſemble that grand luminary. After his death, Commodus removed the head, and replaced it with his own. The middle of the amphitheatre was ſometimes filled with water, and ſometimes even with wine, for the naumachia or ſea-fights. At that time, however, the Romans were ſo corrupt as to conſider it a luxury to view gladiators fighting, ſometimes with each other, till one of each pair was killed; ſometimes with beaſts, under the ſame inviolable cuſtom. Theſe gladiators were ſlaves, ſupported at the expence of their proprietors, and trained to the art of ſkirmiſhing, firſt to do honour to the funeral pomp of great men, and afterwards to increaſe the popularity of their maſters, by contributing to the amuſement of the public. They fought with ſword and ſhield, ſometimes naked, ſometimes armed from head to foot. At length the cuſtom of indulging the public in this amuſement increaſed to ſuch a degree, that the emperors cauſed them to fight by thouſands. This barbarous practice was at firſt confined to criminals or ſlaves; but in later times, Roman citizens, knights, and even ſenators, not only compromiſed their dignity, but ſacrificed their lives, to flatter the emperors, by ſwelling this ignominious profeſſion. Among theſe was Commodus, who acquired the name of Prince of Gladiators. Of the ſlaves and criminals, he who killed his adverſary gained his liberty, amid the univerſal acclamation of the ſpectators. Sometimes they divided into troops, and fought till the total deſtruction of one of the parties decided the conteſt. When they fought for hire, as many did in later periods, their pay was called Auctoramentum; thoſe who received it, Auctorati; and thoſe who recovered their liberty by their valour, Exauctorati. The fighting of men with beaſts was not leſs horrid than that of man with man; for, their natural ferocity being further irritated by the attacks of their adverſaries, they made a moſt bloody ſlaughter of the combatants.' Vol. i. P. 115.

In p. 286 we are told that the Pantheon was covered with ſilver ſheeting, while, in fact, it was nothing more than braſs. But we have already obſerved that ſuch miſtakes are by far too common throughout the whole of the work: we are nevertheleſs ready to acknowledge that for an individual traveller to Rome, unacquainted with the Italian language, this book may poſſibly be of uſe. The engravings are beautiful, and conſiſt of a plan of the city, abridged from Nolli, and ſome ſmall prints, ſaid to have been drawn by Edwards, which are little better than the wooden views in Nardini. The price is truly extravagant for ſo inſignificant a performance.

Fabliaux or Tales, abridged from French Manuscripts of the XIIth and XIIIth Centuries, by M. Le Grand, selected and translated into English Verse, by the late Gregory Lewis Way, Esq. with a Preface, Notes, and Appendix, by G. Ellis, Esq. Vol. II. 8vo. 14s. *Boards.* Faulder. 1800.

IN the IXth volume of our N. A. p. 386, we gave an account of the first volume of this work, to which its author, Gregory Lewis Way, esq. did not think it expedient to affix his name. We are sorry to be informed that this accomplished antiquarian has been prevented by death from receiving the praises due to the masterly completion of his design. He died on the 26th of April, 1799, in the forty-third year of his age. His friend G. Ellis, esq. to whom the public are indebted for the preface, notes, and appendix to these Fabliaux, has, however, ably discharged the duties of an editor; and this posthumous volume has no less claim than its predecessor to the attention and patronage of the lovers of ancient poetry.

In the appendix (p. 287 to 296) Mr. Ellis has given a brief account of the education, habits of life, and literary pursuits of his deceased friend; together with some remarks on the style of his translations, which we think uncommonly interesting and instructive. We agree with him in opinion when he says, 'the style of the Fabliaux may be considered as original; it is not copied from any individual writer, but is evidently the appropriate manner of the author formed upon a deliberate and attentive comparison of all the best writers who have distinguished the several periods of our literature.'

Referring our readers to the general character which we gave of the former volume of this work as in most respects applicable to its successor, we shall only observe, that in point of versification and metrical melody this posthumous offspring of Mr. Way's genius, contrary to what commonly occurs in cases of this nature, is superior to that which was ushered into the literary world under his own immediate auspices.

The tales contained in this volume are thirteen in number. The Lay of Sir Gugemer—The Three Knights and the Smock—The Lay of Narcissus—The Lay of Aristotle—Hippocrates—The Priest who ate Mulberries—The Land of Cocaigne—The Norman Batchelor—Huéline and Eglantine—Griselidis—The Countess of Vergy—The Battle of Carnival and Lent—and, The Road to Paradise.

We shall extract the whole of the story of Hippocrates, as affording a fair specimen of the manner in which Mr. Way has executed the task of translation.

'And now some months at Rome the leech profound
Had sojourn'd on, deservedly renown'd;

Grac'd, as beſeem'd, by Rome's imperial lord,
And by the vulgar like a god ador'd:
When one ſhrewd female roſe, the ſage's peſt,
And turn'd his homage to a ſcornful jeſt.
'A Gaul ſhe was, and of illuſtrious race,
And juſt her form, and lovely was her face;
Her great Auguſtus (for it ſeem'd his aim
To pay full honours to the ſtranger dame,)
Had for her won a royal manſion given,
With a ſtrong tower that rear'd its head to heaven,
And many a dame and damſel had decreed
To do ſuch ſervice as the fair ſhould need.
'The firſt few moments left to choice alone
Were given to view the wonders of the town:
On all worth note ſhe caſt a heedful eye,
Nor paſt, beſure, the twain new ſtatues by.
The ſculptor's excellence awhile ſhe prais'd,
Then, "What mean theſe?" ſhe cried, "and wherefore rais'd?"
The officious guide, accuſtom'd to repeat,
Makes known the inſcription that records the feat;
Whereat loud burſts of laughter ſeize the dame—
"I wiſt not this!" ſhe cried, "whate'er her fame;
I little ween'd that Rome, ſupremely bleſs'd,
This hour within her walls a god poſſeſs'd;
And ſince 'tis ſo, I marvel to behold
How folk ſtill die as erſt, when ſick or old.
Would this divinity, methinks, agree
To yield himſelf for one ſhort day to me,
My head be forfeit but his godſhip grow
A ſillier ſot than mortal ſots below."
'Some buſy babblers who the dame o'erheard,
(Such ſtill are found to ſpread each idle word,)
With headlong zeal retail'd the boaſtful ſpeech,
And wak'd the notice of the curious leech.
Self-love was rous'd; he felt deſire to ſee
This wond'rous dame at leaſt, whate'er ſhe be.
Wo worth the while! ſoon was he doom'd to rue
The luckleſs ſight!—her prophecy came true!
Her form ſo beauteous ſhow'd, ſuch ſprightly grace
Flow'd from her lips and beam'd around her face,
That, harneſs'd as he was with ſtrong miſtruſt,
The fair prevail'd: he loves, for love he muſt.
Wide ſpread the taint, till, all the man poſſeſs'd,
His reaſon tottering, loſt his power of reſt,
To a ſick bed confin'd ere long was found
By Rome's great lord Hippocrates renown'd.
'The emperor firſt condol'd, then ladies came,
And in the rear of theſe the ſtranger dame.

She, for ſhe own'd a keen and ſearching wit,
Right well the ſecret of the ailment hit,
And, in an hour when all the reſt were gone,
With friendly guiſe and ſympathiſing tone
She queſtion'd him, as one who ſought to trace
The ſtate, firſt cauſe, and progreſs of his caſe.
The luckleſs leech, who thought himſelf too bleſs'd
To pour his griefs into his lady's breaſt,
All baſhful turns and windings laid aſide,
Own'd frankly 'twas for love of her he died.

'Twas this ſhe ſought:—ſoft pity, as it ſeem'd,
Inſpir'd her ſoul for wight ſo well eſteem'd;
And thus ſhe ſpoke: "Deep blot of blame from all,
And heavier ſelf-reproach, on me muſt fall,
Should I, poſſeſſing power, refuſe to ſave,
And quench ſuch matchleſs merit in the grave:
Yet, were my love to you like yours to me,
(Aſk your own heart, and tell that heart's decree,)
What mortal means remain ſuch love to ſhow,
Known as I am, and eyed where-e'er I go?
Let then this word thy kind acceptance meet:
Reſt ſatisfied awhile with my regret;
Reſt ſatisfied thy welfare fills my mind;
And ſhould thy luckier genius after find
Apt means of intercourſe, ſucceed or fail,
I here anticipate and ſanction all!"

Ceas'd the fair Gaul, then haſted to depart,
All bluſhing to have thus diſclos'd her heart.
But, for the ſage Hippocrates, her ſtrain
Shot hope, health, luſtihood, through every vein:
Soon to the palace, blithe of cheer, he hied,
Soon buzz'd about his Gauliſh fair-one's ſide.

"Well!" quoth the dame, the firſt fit time ſhe found,
"How proſper we? our budding hopes are crown'd?"—
"Ah me!" with doleful tone the leech replied,
"Or night or day I've known no thought beſide,
Yet, to this hour, it grieves me to confeſs,
Device has fail'd, I cannot boaſt ſucceſs."
"Then liſt to me, and thank me as you hear,"
Return'd the dame with well pretended cheer;
"I too have pain'd me, and forſworn my reſt,
If not more eager in my ſearch, more bleſs'd.
Thou know'ſt right well my manſion and my tower;
Beneath thoſe walls at midnight's loneſieſt hour
Wait thou beſure; for furtherance of the plan
Bear a large baſket, fit to hold a man:
Then, while my maids are huſh'd in ſleep profound,
One laſs, my couſin, to my intereſts bound,

Shall with my aid a well-wrought cord let down;
Make thou the pannier faſt, and love's our own.
By our joint toil we'll hale thee up on high:
There joy ſhall reign in dreadleſs privacy."

'So counſell'd the fair Gaul, and amorous rage
To ſuch a blindneſs wrought the inſenſate ſage,
That the coarſe ſnare begat no jot of doubt,
But ſeem'd a maſter-piece of ſkill throughout.
Brief leave he took, with thankfulneſs o'ercome,
Then for a ſpacious baſket ranſack'd Rome;
And, ſwoln with hope, and wild with ſtrange delight,
Stay'd reſtleſsly the lingering ſhades of night.

'Night came at laſt: mankind in ſleep lay dead;
Forth with his load in breathleſs haſte he ſped,
And ſpied—O judge his joy that bliſsful hour!
The long cord pendent from the lofty tower.
To the firm baſket, with inceſſant toil
Of many a rugged knot and many a coil,
Its end he bound; then in the graybeard went,
And gave the appointed ſignal for aſcent.
Straight roſe the load, updrawn by female might,
Till, juſt as it had reach'd its midway height,
To a ſtrong hook the dame made faſt the cord,
And ſtay'd 'twixt earth and ſky her penſile lord;
And "O ſweet ſlumbers on thy eyelids reſt!
Sweet ſleep," ſhe cried, "with joyous viſions bleſs'd!
May Love's light dreams around thy temples play!"
So ſpake the laughing dame, and tripp'd away.

'Now wot ye all, what learned writers tell,
How, when in Rome this ſtrange event befell,
A ſpecial cuſtom reign'd, that mark'd the times,
Ordain'd the puniſhment for pettier crimes:
'Twas that the convict, pendent from a tower
Aloft in air, from morn till evening hour,
Should in a baſket expiate his offence;
'Twas nam'd the Baſket of the Judges hence.

'Grim with deſpair, Hippocrates look'd down,
Enſnar'd 'twas plain, the jeſt of all the town;
In countleſs mutterings ſpat forth ſpleen and gall,
And execrated love and ladies all.
But, bootleſs ire! and wiſdom now too late!
The remnant hours of night he needs muſt wait;
Needs muſt he view the hateful blaze of morn,
And, helpleſs all, hang there the general ſcorn.
In vain, when light his luckleſs hap reveal'd,
His twain uplifted hands his face conceal'd;
The penal ſign attracts each paſſer by,
And none but knew him as they drew more nigh.

There through the livelong day the rabble rout
With ceaſeleſs mockery throng'd and boiſterous ſhout.
The warders of the tower, who kenn'd his plight,
But ween'd the emperor had ſo doom'd the wight,
Beſted him nought: and now the weſtering ſun
Well nigh the circuit of his courſe had run,
When ſome bleſs'd chance led onward to the place
The emperor, that time haſting from the chace;
Upward his eye he caſt, and wondering ſaw
A wretch ſuſpended, uncondemn'd by law:
"Who were the wight?—the medicinal fire!"—
Loud menaces of vengeance ſpoke his ire:
But, when he learnt the wherefore and the why
That rais'd this graybeard mocking-ſtock ſo high,
He laugh'd full loud: the tale became the ſport
Of him and every baron of his court.' P. 63.

It appears that in addition to the thirteen fabliaux, the titles of which we have recited above, Mr. Way intended to have inſerted in the preſent volume at leaſt five more. Of theſe Mr. Ellis has given analyſes, and has alſo exhibited his friend's tranſlation, which had not received his laſt corrections. The Lay of the Gray Palfrey Mr. Way left not more than half completed; but the deficiency is well ſupplied by the ſkill of his editor, whoſe verſion poſſeſſes uncommon merit. This volume is alſo enriched with tranſlations of ſome ſmall lays and ſongs contained in the firſt volume of 'Corps d'Extraits de Romans de Chevalerie, par M. Le Comte de Treſſan;' and for the purpoſe of exhibiting a ſpecimen of the poetical ſtyle, which prevailed in England at the time when many of the French fabliaux were compoſed, Mr. Ellis has ſubjoined the Lay of Launfal, tranſlated from Mlle. Marie's French original, by Thomas Cheſtre, who flouriſhed in the reign of Henry VI.

Elements of Chemiſtry. By Joſeph Francis Jacquin, Profeſſor of Chemiſtry and Botany at Vienna, &c. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray *and* Highley.

THE remark we have ſo often had occaſion to make, reſpecting the difficulty of giving a complete view of a rapidly improving ſcience, applies with particular force to the work before us. It is a tranſlation from another language, publiſhed in a diſtant country, and from cauſes, which it would be uſeleſs to explain, has been unexpectedly delayed in our hands. To ſay, therefore, it is incomplete, can be no imputation to the author; and to add that the tranſlator has not ſupplied every deficiency, will be no reflexion on his diligence or accu-

racy. It is more to the purpoſe to obſerve, that the clearneſs and ſimplicity of the introductory remarks, the comprehenſive views of an intricate ſubject, and the judicious ſelection of the leading facts on each part, render theſe Elements one of the moſt valuable introductions to chemiſtry that we have yet ſeen. They comprehend the moſt ſtriking and uſeful properties of each ſubſtance, and ſhow, in the cleareſt manner, the different actions of ſubſtances both in decompoſition and reformation of new compounds. It would be hypercritical to notice a few errors 'quos incuria fudit;' and it would be unjuſt to expect an account of diſcoveries made ſubſequent to the publication. The date of the original is not indeed mentioned, but we trace it nearly to the beginning of the year 1798. Yet, perhaps, at this æra the nature of æther had been more fully inveſtigated, and the properties of hydro-carbonat gaz better known than it appears to have been to our author. Some other diſcoveries had been alſo made previous to that time. The tranſlator, who has added in the notes a few of the new facts, has not been always fortunate in his ſelection. The nature of the adamantine ſpar was known at the period of the Engliſh verſion; and various other information might have been ſubjoined to M. Jacquin's work, and ſome elucidations appended. *Some*, indeed, are ſuggeſted; but of theſe, as many have been refuted as have been confirmed by ſubſequent experience. This, however, is no great fault. Several of theſe doubtful aſſertions for a time claimed much attention, particularly Girtanner's pretended diſcovery of the radical of the muriatic acid, which many confided in, even of thoſe who were well aware of that author's rapid glances and haſty concluſions. In another edition all theſe defects may be ſupplied, and theſe errors eraſed; and the real merit of the work will probably ſoon make another impreſſion neceſſary.

We have ſaid that this is one of the cleareſt and moſt judicious introductions to chemiſtry that we have ſeen; but as pretending to no new diſcoveries, and claiming only the merit of a clear explanation of a ſcience already known, it requires not from us a full analyſis. It is ſufficient to give a ſhort account of the author's plan, and a ſpecimen of his manner.

The introduction relates to the reputed chemical elements, to chemical ſolutions and affinities; the matters of heat and light, to the atmoſphere and water. The ſubjects of chemiſtry are conſidered as belonging to the mineral, the vegetable, or the animal kingdom; but in this way the moſt homogeneous ſubjects are ſeparated; the acids and their neutrals are diſperſed in different parts of the work; nor is it eaſy, without the index, to find where the properties of many ſubſtances are explained. Thus the nitrous and muriatic acid are noticed among the ſalts, the ſulphuric among the inflammables; the

malic, citric, &c. in the chapter belonging to the vegetable kingdom, the phosphoric, bombic, &c. with the animal substances. The index, however, which is full and complete, will remedy much of the inconvenience resulting from such an arrangement; and to the student in his early career this will be no great impediment, as the general properties of acids are premised.

The chemical description of the vegetable kingdom is rendered more interesting by some very valuable pharmaceutical remarks; but on the subject of aroma, and of the peculiar nature of the cruciform plants, many curious observations had been published, at least before the English version of this work, the insertion of which would have rendered it more complete. When, however, we recommend additional notes in the second edition, we could wish that the subjects were explained with the same precision, the same perspicuity, which so eminently distinguish M. Jacquin's own work, and, in the mean time, the student will not be at any loss if he read, together with the present system, Mr. Parkinson's very excellent publication, 'The Chemical Pocket-Book.'

The different animal productions are very clearly explained, though somewhat might be added from the late experiments of —— Vauquelin. Perhaps we can offer no better specimen of our author's perspicuity than the following entire section.

'*General consideration of the proximate and remote principles of animal bodies.*

'It is obvious, from the analyses of the animal parts on which we have treated, that the following substances may be considered as the principal components of animal bodies: 1. Water; 2. jelly; 3. albuminous matter or lymph; 4. saccharine matter; 5. fat; 6. resin; 7. the fibrous part of blood or muscles; 8. salts; and 9. calcareous earth.

'Animal bodies are, therefore, much more compound than vegetables. Both have some parts in common, as water, saccharine matter, and lime. Other parts, on the contrary, are peculiar to each; thus plants contain volatile oils and some essential salts, whilst animals contain albumen, which, in vegetables, is met with in small quantity only. Finally, although some of the constituent parts of animals and vegetables resemble each other in some degree, yet they appear under circumstances by which they may be easily distinguished from one another.

'Such constituent parts are animal jelly, which, though it agrees in many of its properties with vegetable mucilage and gum, is yet sufficiently distinguished from these bodies on account of the difficulty with which it dries; the property of attracting humidity from the atmosphere; its change to a tremulous mass, and its greater tendency to putrefaction. Thus also the fibrous part of muscles pos-

ſeſſes almoſt all the properties of the gluten of farina, yet it differs from this ſubſtance in its greater tenacity and elaſticity. Moreover, the proportion of this ſubſtance is much greater in animals than that of gluten in vegetables. Laſtly, animal fat and reſin differ from expreſſed oils and vegetable reſins even in many of their external properties.

'The ſalts of the animal kingdom differ, in like manner, from thoſe of vegetables. Beſides the ſmall quantity of muriatic acid and ſoda found in both kingdoms, and the ſebacic acid, which is much more abundant in animal fat than in expreſſed vegetable oils, the vegetable kingdom is diſtinguiſhed by the oxalic, tartareous, malic, citric, and benzoic acids; and the animal kingdom by the lactic, phoſphoric, lithic, and formic acids, and the baſis of the ſaccharine acid of milk.

'All theſe proximate principles of animals may be reſolved into the following remoter principles, viz. oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, carbon, phoſphorus, lime, and iron. Theſe are preciſely the ſame in plants, with this difference, that the quantity of phoſphorus and nitrogen in the latter is very ſmall, which bodies, on the contrary, form a conſtant and principal part of animals.' P. 368.

At the end are added an outline of the phlogiſtic ſyſtem, and a deſcription of Woulfe's apparatus for compound diſtillation. From the former part we ſhall conclude our article with a ſhort extract.

'In a ſimilar manner they endeavoured, in their phlogiſtic ſyſtem, to account for moſt of the other phænomena in chemiſtry, to which the looſe and indefinite theory of phlogiſton afforded great facility. But the futility of moſt of theſe explanations is manifeſt, as ſoon as we inſiſt upon a ſtrict conformity with the eſtabliſhed principles of the mutual action of bodies upon each other, and demand an exact account of the weight and meaſure of the bodies made uſe of in experiments. There are many things in nature which we cannot explain, and which will always remain obſcure. It is therefore unreaſonable to reject a ſyſtem becauſe it is unable to remove the veil which hides the cauſe of many appearances. The antiphlogiſtians do not, indeed, arrogate to themſelves this merit; but their ſyſtem deſerves the preference which is granted to it by almoſt all the naturaliſts of the preſent age, ſince it explains moſt of the phænomena explicitly, uniformly, and with the minuteſt circumſtances; appears more conformable to the ſimple path of nature, and draws all inferences from matters of fact, without requiring the aid of ſubtle arguments.

'Nihil eſt in intellectu quod non prius fuerit in ſenſu.

BACO.' P. 380.

A Walk through ſome of the Weſtern Counties of England. By the Rev. Richard Warner, of Bath. 8vo. 7s. *Boards.* Robinſons. 1800.

PEDESTRIANS we have uſually found lively and cheerful: they eſcape the vexations of tired horſes and uneaſy carriages; free and independent in their exertions, they can at pleaſure court the ſhade or baſk in the ſun. Mr. Warner in this tour, however, wanted ſhelter rather than ſhade, for the weather was unſeaſonably wet; but the rain did not check his vivacity, or quench the brilliancy of his fancy. Were we to be ſeverely critical, we might wiſh that, at times, it had ſhortened his digreſſions, which are occaſionally diſproportioned. But even the hint is ungrateful, for to us they have beguiled ſome tedious hours of pain, and we believe that to no one they can be unpleaſing. Let us, however, follow him, not indeed *paſſibus æquis*, but in a deſultory path, to give ſome idea of his route, and of the entertainment the reader who accompanies him more cloſely may reaſonably expect to derive.

From Bath, the reſidence of our pleaſant pedeſtrian, Mr. Warner proceeds to Glaſtonbury, but returns to the north and weſt, to examine the Cheddar cliffs, which, we regret to ſay, have not yet been honoured by the viſits of a ſcientific traveller. This north-weſtern courſe terminates at Axbridge, and Mr. Warner proceeds, nearly ſouth, to the embouchure of the Parret, and from thence, along the Briſtol Channel, to Minehead, Lymouth, and Ilfracombe. Barnſtaple and Biddeford next ſhare his attention, and, advancing north-weſt, he enters Cornwall at Kilkhampton, viſiting Werrington and Launceſton; but the rain prevented his farther progreſs, and he preſſed acroſs to Bren Tor, Lidford, and Oakhampton, and, paſſing over a corner of Dartmoor, proceeded to Chagford, Moreton, Bovey-Tracey, and Chudleigh. From this laſt place his courſe was directed as far as Totneſs to the ſouth; and, again croſſing the Teign at Newton-Buſhel, he advanced to Teignmouth and Exmouth. Impelled homeward by the inclement weather, he next paſſes haſtily through Ottery to Honiton, Chard and Ilminſter to Glaſtonbury. From Glaſtonbury he returns to Bath through Chewton Mendip, Clutton, &c. to viſit Wookey hole and the druidical remains at Stanton Drew.

In this tour the line was well choſen, and comprehended a varied pictureſque ſcenery; nor would Mr. Warner have added greatly to its intereſt had he really viſited the Belerian promontory. The beautiful expanſe of Falmouth bay, the bold gigantic features of St. Michael's mount, might have attracted his attention and excited pleaſure and aſtoniſhment; but theſe feelings muſt have been purchaſed by many a weary footſtep, through paths the moſt tedious and forlorn. The ſeaſon of

his travels was not well choſen. They began in September; and had October been a dry month, as it often is, he muſt have purchaſed the advantage by encountering the equinoctial gales.

In the firſt part of his tour he is perhaps too digreſſive; but he expatiates with feeling on the ancient remains of Glaſtonbury, and, with a little archneſs, on the ſubterraneous paſſage from the George inn to——not the altar of the church, but the abbot's bed chamber.

'Time and rapine, violence and gradual decay, have made ſtill more deplorable havock in the great church—a mighty fabrick, the building of which alone muſt have exhauſted a quarry. Imagine, my dear ſir, a cathedral extending in length from eaſt to weſt 420 feet, ſpreading its tranſepts to the breadth of 135, riſing to a ſublime height, adorned with innumerable rich ſhrines "antic pillars," ſculptured windows, and painted glaſs, the whole executed in the pureſt Gothick ſtyle, and finiſhed with the moſt elaborate art; let your fancy, I repeat, repreſent a building like this, and you will have before you ſuch a ſplendid cathedral as once exiſted at Glaſtonbury. Then let the buſy workman go on, and people this enormous edifice; let him introduce 500 monks, the regal train of the lord abbot, pacing its conſecrated pavement in gorgeous proceſſion at the ſolemn hour of midnight, and illuminating its high-arched roof with a thouſand flaming tapers: bid him ſtrike the pealing organ, and ſwell the note of praiſe in one grand chorus from the aſſembled multitude, and he will add to his firſt picture, the moſt impreſſive of all religious ſervices, the celebration of a nocturnal maſs by the abbot and his dependant monks.

'To me, who contemplate with particular pleaſure the ancient eccleſiaſtical architecture of this kingdom, and admire the pageantry of the Romiſh ritual, though I lament the purpoſes to which it is applied, ſcenes like the ruins of Glaſtonbury abbey afford conſiderable gratification. My imagination readily enters into "the deeds of the days of other years;" and while I tread the hallowed ſpot, reverts with eaſe to, and intereſts itſelf in the tranſactions which it has witneſſed, the grandeur it has exhibited, the viciſſitudes it has ſuffered.' P. 25.

The miraculous thorn is well known to be a late flowering variety. The county to the weſt of Glaſtonbury is gained from the ſea, and now below its level: its encroachments are only prevented by dykes; and the burial place of Arthur, but for theſe, would ſtill be the *iſland* of Avalonia. Of Cheddar cliffs we ſhall copy the deſcription.

'Here indeed Nature, working with a gigantic hand, has diſplayed a ſcene of no common grandeur. In one of thoſe moments, when ſhe convulſes the world with the throws of an earthquake, ſhe has burſt aſunder the rocky ribs of Mendip, and torn a chaſm acroſs

its diameter of more than a mile in length. The vaſt abruption yawns from the ſummit down to the roots of the mountain, laying open to the ſun a ſublime and tremendous ſcene—precipices, rocks, and caverns, of terrifying deſcent, fantaſtic forms, and gloomy vacuity. The rugged walls of the fiſſure riſe in many places perpendicularly to the height of 400 feet, and in others, fall into obliquities of more than double that elevation. Whilſt pacing their awful involutions (through which now runs the turnpike-road to Briſtol) it requires but little imagination to fancy oneſelf bewildered amid the ruins of ſome ſtupendous caſtle, the gigantic work of diſtant times, when a whole nation lent its hand to the enormous labour, and the operation was effected by the united ſtrength of congregated multitudes. The idea of ruined battlements and ſolitary towers is perpetually ſuggeſted by lofty crags and groteſque maſſes of rock, which ſtand detached from their parent hills, and liſt their beetling heads over the diſtant road below. Though the character of this huge chine be in general that of terrific grandeur and rugged ſublimity, it has notwithſtanding ſome milder features; Nature, in her paſſion for variety, having introduced a few touches of the picturesque, by occaſionally throwing over the bare face of the rock a mantle of ivy, and ſprinkling here and there, amongſt the crags and hollows, the yew, the aſh, and other mountainous trees. Nor has ſhe provided entertainment for the artiſt alone; the botaniſt and mineralogiſt will have reaſon to applaud her bounty, whilſt he creeps along the crags of Cheddar cliffs, or treads the mazes of their caverns. Here the dianthus glaucus diſcovers its rare and crimſoned head, accompanied by thalectra, polypodia, aſplenia, and many other plants equally curious and uncommon; and there are found lac lunæ, coralloids, ſtalactites, ſpars, and chryſtallizations (*cryſtalliſations.*)

'On approaching Cheddar cliffs, I could not but notice the very pleaſing effect produced by a ſingular contraſt—

"Veſtibulum ante ipſum,"

at the entrance, all is gentle and beautiful. A brook, clear as glaſs, ruſhing from the roots of the rocks, leads its murmuring courſe by the ſide of the road on the left hand, backed by a ſhrubby wood, at the edge of which riſes an humble cottage, the calm retreat of health and peace, and on the oppoſite ſide the ground ſwells into a ſteep, ſufficiently covered, however, with verdure and vegetation to form a ſoft feature in the ſcene; but a ſtep farther,

"Primisque in faucibus orci,"

a ſudden alteration takes place, the rocks ſhoot up in all their grandeur, their black ſummits, ſcarred with the tempeſts of heaven, nodding ruin on the head of the gazing ſpectator.' P. 44.

The incidental remarks on incloſure, though candid, might have been ſpared; but the little epiſode of Joanna Martin is

natural and intereſting. The whole of the tour along the Briſtol Channel deſerves much commendation for its accuracy and clearneſs. Minehead, Lymouth, and Ilfracombe, are well deſcribed; nor have we ſeen a better or more ſatisfactory account of the principal object in theſe regions, the Valley of Stones. Its nature is moſt clearly developed when approached in this direction. The length of the deſcription alone prevents us from tranſcribing it. The ſource of the Tamar and the Torridge, which, though riſing in ſocial neighbourhood, diverge in different directions, and fall into ſeas widely diſtant, greatly diſappointed Mr. Warner; but the ſource of every river is modeſt and unaſſuming, and gives little proſpect of its future magnificence. Our traveller was equally, and with reaſon, diſappointed in the expected ſublimity of Lidford caſcade. To the Tamar, however, he was afterwards reconciled.

'Shortly after this (near Milton Abbot) inclination, my old friend the Tamar again introduced himſelf to me, but in a very different character to what he wore when I had firſt the pleaſure of his acquaintance. He was now a deep majeſtic river, flowing ſilently through rich meadows, whoſe fertile banks bore grateful teſtimony to the fecundating influence of his waters. At Greyſtone-bridge he aſſumed peculiar beauty, and with the aid of his banks and woods formed a ſcene ſtrikingly picturesque. Here the Tamar, gently murmuring over a pebbly bed, leads his ſtream under a light and neat ſtone bridge, moſt taſtily ornamented with a thin veil of ivy, and conſiſting of ſeven arches, which are but partially ſeen through the alders, willows, and other waving plants which fringe the margin of the ſtream. A narrow ſtrip of meadow curbs the river on the left hand, ſkirted with an airy fillet of tall elegant aſh and beech trees, backed by a ſolemn wood of oak. After ſhooting through the bridge, the Tamar makes a bold ſweep to the right, which introduces a magnificent ſteep bank in the front of the picture, one deep maſs of ſhade from top to bottom. A little cottage (the turnpike-houſe) at the further end of the bridge, juſt diſcerned through the wood of the fore-ground, is a happy circumſtance in the enchanting ſcene.' P. 150.

Of the Lid at Lidford-bridge alſo he ſpeaks reſpectfully.

'On my approach to Lidford, the river, which I had ſeen at a diſtance, approximated alſo, and about half a mile before I reached the public-houſe I croſſed a ſmall bridge thrown over a narrow gully, the ſides of which were ſo obſcured by wood, that nothing extraordinary was preſented to the eye, But this ſpot only required obſervation to make it extremely impreſſive. Hither my guide again led me, and placed me in a ſituation where I could diſcover all its parts. The ſcene which here diſplayed itſelf bore a ſtrong reſemblance to that at the Devil's-bridge, though upon a leſs ſcale

than it, and accompanied with fewer circumſtances of horror. A deep rocky rent, preſenting on each ſide a rugged perpendicular precipice of nearly one hundred feet, but of a very narrow breadth, opens from a glen at right angles with the road; through whoſe gloomy bottom the little river Lid, violent even in infancy, puſhes its waters with irreſiſtible fury. Over the narroweſt part of this chaſm a bridge is thrown, and the turnpike road conducted. Below this, at a ſhort diſtance, the fiſſure gradually ſpreads its rocky jaws; the bottom opens, and inſtead of the dark precipices which have hitherto over-hung and obſcured the ſtruggling river, it now emerges into day, and rolls its murmuring current through a winding valley, confined between magnificent banks darkened with woods, which ſwell into bold promontories, or fall back into ſweeping receſſes, till they are loſt to the eye in diſtance. Thickly ſhaded by trees which ſhoot out from the ſides of the rent, the ſcene at Lidford-bridge is not ſo terrific as it would have been, had a little more light been let in upon the abyſs, juſt ſufficient to produce a darkneſs viſible; for though the imagination do not like to have its ſtructures intermeddled with, or its work performed for it, yet it requires ſome materials to be provided for its operations. As it is, however, the chaſm cannot be regarded without ſhuddering, nor will the ſtouteſt heart meditate unappalled upon the dreadful anecdotes connected with the ſpot.' P. 153.

The deſcriptions of Chudleigh, with its ſtupendous lime rocks, of Totneſs and Dartington, which he juſtly thinks never belonged to the Knights Templars, are intereſting; and of the little bathing places, Teignmouth, Dawliſh, and Exmouth, by no means unpleaſing. He neither viſited Mamhead nor Powderham. The weather prevented many remarks in our author's return. He chiefly enlarges on Wookey-hole and Stanton-Drew, which nevertheleſs does not derive the adjunct from the druids, but from a former inhabitant. Druidical remains, as they are called, abound, however, in this ſpot, though Mr. Warner thinks lightly of Druidical learning or power: the one was little raiſed above the knowledge of the vulgar, and the other not above the labour of numbers, aſſiſted with a ſmall proportion of mechanical ſcience.

This pleaſing little tour is adorned with a wooden vignette of the road prefixed to each letter, and with two ſmall etched and tinted plates of Berry Pomeroy caſtle, and of the ſimple unadorned church of Culbone on the Briſtol Channel.

natural and intereſting. The whole of the tour along the Briſtol Channel deſerves much commendation for its accuracy and clearneſs. Minehead, Lymouth, and Ilfracombe, are well deſcribed; nor have we ſeen a better or more ſatisfactory account of the principal object in theſe regions, the Valley of Stones. Its nature is moſt clearly developed when approached in this direction. The length of the deſcription alone prevents us from tranſcribing it. The ſource of the Tamar and the Torridge, which, though riſing in ſocial neighbourhood, diverge in different directions, and fall into ſeas widely diſtant, greatly diſappointed Mr. Warner; but the ſource of every river is modeſt and unaſſuming, and gives little proſpect of its future magnificence. Our traveller was equally, and with reaſon, diſappointed in the expected ſublimity of Lidford caſcade. To the Tamar, however, he was afterwards reconciled.

'Shortly after this (near Milton Abbot) inclination, my old friend the Tamar again introduced himſelf to me, but in a very different character to what he wore when I had firſt the pleaſure of his acquaintance. He was now a deep majeſtic river, flowing ſilently through rich meadows, whoſe fertile banks bore grateful teſtimony to the fecundating influence of his waters. At Greyſtone-bridge he aſſumed peculiar beauty, and with the aid of his banks and woods formed a ſcene ſtrikingly pictureſque. Here the Tamar, gently murmuring over a pebbly bed, leads his ſtream under a light and neat ſtone bridge, moſt taſtily ornamented with a thin veil of ivy, and conſiſting of ſeven arches, which are but partially ſeen through the alders, willows, and other waving plants which fringe the margin of the ſtream. A narrow ſtrip of meadow curbs the river on the left hand, ſkirted with an airy fillet of tall elegant aſh and beech trees, backed by a ſolemn wood of oak. After ſhooting through the bridge, the Tamar makes a bold ſweep to the right, which introduces a magnificent ſteep bank in the front of the picture, one deep maſs of ſhade from top to bottom. A little cottage (the turnpike-houſe) at the further end of the bridge, juſt diſcerned through the wood of the fore-ground, is a happy circumſtance in the enchanting ſcene.' P. 150.

Of the Lid at Lidford-bridge alſo he ſpeaks reſpectfully.

'On my approach to Lidford, the river, which I had ſeen at a diſtance, approximated alſo, and about half a mile before I reached the public-houſe I croſſed a ſmall bridge thrown over a narrow gully, the ſides of which were ſo obſcured by wood, that nothing extraordinary was preſented to the eye, But this ſpot only required obſervation to make it extremely impreſſive. Hither my guide again led me, and placed me in a ſituation where I could diſcover all its parts. The ſcene which here diſplayed itſelf bore a ſtrong reſemblance to that at the Devil's-bridge, though upon a leſs ſcale

than it, and accompanied with fewer circumſtances of horror. A deep rocky rent, preſenting on each ſide a rugged perpendicular precipice of nearly one hundred feet, but of a very narrow breadth, opens from a glen at right angles with the road; through whoſe gloomy bottom the little river Lid, violent even in infancy, puſhes its waters with irreſiſtible fury. Over the narroweſt part of this chaſm a bridge is thrown, and the turnpike road conducted. Below this, at a ſhort diſtance, the fiſſure gradually ſpreads its rocky jaws; the bottom opens, and inſtead of the dark precipices which have hitherto over-hung and obſcured the ſtruggling river, it now emerges into day, and rolls its murmuring current through a winding valley, confined between magnificent banks darkened with woods, which ſwell into bold promontories, or fall back into ſweeping receſſes, till they are loſt to the eye in diſtance. Thickly ſhaded by trees which ſhoot out from the ſides of the rent, the ſcene at Lidford-bridge is not ſo terrific as it would have been, had a little more light been let in upon the abyſs, juſt ſufficient to produce a darkneſs viſible; for though the imagination do not like to have its ſtructures intermeddled with, or its work performed for it, yet it requires ſome materials to be provided for its operations. As it is, however, the chaſm cannot be regarded without ſhuddering, nor will the ſtouteſt heart meditate unappalled upon the dreadful anecdotes connected with the ſpot.' P. 153.

The deſcriptions of Chudleigh, with its ſtupendous lime rocks, of Totneſs and Dartington, which he juſtly thinks never belonged to the Knights Templars, are intereſting; and of the little bathing places, Teignmouth, Dawliſh, and Exmouth, by no means unpleaſing. He neither viſited Mamhead nor Powderham. The weather prevented many remarks in our author's return. He chiefly enlarges on Wookey-hole and Stanton-Drew, which nevertheleſs does not derive the adjunct from the druids, but from a former inhabitant. Druidical remains, as they are called, abound, however, in this ſpot, though Mr. Warner thinks lightly of Druidical learning or power: the one was little raiſed above the knowledge of the vulgar, and the other not above the labour of numbers, aſſiſted with a ſmall proportion of mechanical ſcience.

This pleaſing little tour is adorned with a wooden vignette of the road prefixed to each letter, and with two ſmall etched and tinted plates of Berry Pomeroy caſtle, and of the ſimple unadorned church of Culbone on the Briſtol Channel.

The Annual Anthology. Volume II.* 1800. 8*vo.* 6*s. Boards.* Longman *and* Rees.

THE compilation of anthologies may, at firſt view, appear an eaſy taſk, but upon reflection it will be found attended with peculiar difficulties. The ſelection of valuable fugitive pieces requires no common proportion of judgement, no ordinary degree of taſte. Even the poet himſelf, ſo far from being able to ſtand the ordeal of foreign criticiſm, too frequently produces effuſions which are not entirely ſatisfactory in the eſtimation of his own fond and flattering fancy. Under theſe circumſtances, the dangerous convenience and overweaning complaiſance of a periodical miſcellany uſhers occaſionally into light compoſitions which would otherwiſe have quietly ſlept in the portfolio, or been ſubject to a future reviſion.

This is the eſſential defect of all anthologies, or collections of poetry unedited by the authors themſelves: a defect to which, from their very nature, they are almoſt inevitably ſubject. We were not therefore ſurpriſed to find in the ſecond volume of the work before us many pieces which do not riſe above mediocrity. But we are happy to repeat the opinion we pronounced upon the firſt volume of this publication, viz. that it contains much eaſy verſification, and many genuine traits of the poetic art.

In 'The Child of Sorrow's Tale' we find touches of the moſt impreſſive pathos.

'Deny, but do not taunt a maid
Who never ſcorn with ſcorn repays;
Proud man, though now I aſk your aid
Mine once, alas! were happier days.
But Sorrow mark'd me for her own
Before I told my twentieth year—
Yet when my friends began to frown,
I but reproach'd them with—a tear.

'I ne'er could frame the harſh reply,
The look unkind by feeling fear'd,
E'en when I met Diſdain's cold eye,
E'en when I cruel language heard.
I've ſeen my friend, my earlieſt friend,
Refuſe my tale of woe to hear;
Yet ſtill unwilling to offend,
All my remembrance was—a tear.

'And I have known the ſlanderer's tongue
My fame with vile diſhonour taint,
Yet on my lips no curſes hung,
Tho' mournful, mild was my complaint.

* See our XXVIIIth Vol. New Arr. p. 82.

And I was forc'd by cruel power
To leave the ſcenes I held moſt dear:
O! 'twas indeed a trying hour!
Yet all my language was—a tear.

'And I have known the youth I lov'd
Retract the vows he ſwore to me,
Behold my pallid cheek unmoved,
And ſmiling boaſt that he was free!
Yet I was calm—and (hour of dread!)
I ſaw him woo a maid more dear—
But I was mute, I only ſhed
No—no!—I could not ſhed a tear!

'Ah! full was then my cup of grief—
Friends, fortune, lover, fame, all loſt—
A beggar now I aſk relief,
A ſmall, a trifling boon at moſt.
Still can you chide me from your door?
Ah, no!—your looks compaſſion wear—
So large a gift!—Oh! words were poor—
I thank, I bleſs you in—a tear.' P. 27.

'The Battle of Blenheim' archly conveys, in ſtrains of poetic ſimplicity, a moſt affecting moral.

'It was a ſummer evening,
Old Kaſpar's work was done;
And he before his cottage door
Was ſitting in the ſun,
And by him ſported on the green
His little grandchild Wilhelmine.

'She ſaw her brother Peterkin
Roll ſomething large and round,
That he beſide the rivulet
In playing there had found;
He came to aſk what he had found,
That was ſo large, and ſmooth, and round.

'Old Kaſpar took it from the boy
Who ſtood expectant by;
And then the old man ſhook his head,
And with a natural ſigh,
'Tis ſome poor fellow's ſcull, ſaid he,
Who fell in the great victory.

'I find them in the garden, for
There's many here about,
And often when I go to plough,
The ploughſhare turns them out;

For many thouſand men, ſaid he,
Were ſlain in the great victory.

'Now tell us what 'twas all about,
Young Peterkin he cries,
And little Wilhelmine looks up
With wonder-waiting eyes;
Now tell us all about the war,
And what they kill'd each other for.

'It was the Engliſh, Kaſpar cried,
That put the French to rout;
But what they kill'd each other for,
I could not well make out.
But every body ſaid, quoth he,
That 'twas a famous victory.

'My father lived at Blenheim then,
Yon little ſtream hard by,
They burnt his dwelling to the ground
And he was forced to fly;
So with his wife and child he fled,
Nor had he where to reſt his head.

'With fire and ſword the country round
Was waſted far and wide,
And many a childing mother then,
And new-born infant died.
But things like that, you know, muſt be
At every famous victory.

'They ſay it was a ſhocking ſight
After the field was won,
For many thouſand bodies here
Lay rotting in the ſun;
But things like that, you know, muſt be
After a famous victory.

'Great praiſe the duke of Marlbro' won
And our good prince Eugene.—
Why 'twas a very wicked thing!
Said little Wilhelmine.
Nay—nay—my little girl, quoth he,
It was a famous victory.

'And every body praised the duke
Who ſuch a fight did win.
But what good came of it at laſt?—
Quoth little Peterkin.
Why that I cannot tell, ſaid he,
But 'twas a famous victory.' P. 34.

The 'Lines to Sarah' are elegant; and diſplay in flowing numbers the ardour of pure affection.

'Now Spring's ambroſial fingers pour
Of vernal buds a breathing ſhower,
And ſweetly ſmiles the blue-eyed ſky;
I love unheard, unſeen, to ſteal
Along the verdure-veſted vale,
For as I ſtray, to Fancy's eye
Each lovelier ſhape of nature view'd
Diſplays, in ſweet ſimilitude,
The peerleſs graces that entwine
Around my Sarah's form divine.

'The lucid dew-drop twinkling nigh,
Recalls to thought her ſparkling eye
Illumin'd with a liquid light;
The ſtrawberry bluſhing on its bed
Her rapture-breathing lip as red;
The vale-nurſt lily's bell ſo white,
Her ſnowy boſom's gentle ſwell,
Where neſtling loves delight to dwell;
And dimly, in the ſtreamlet's breaſt,
By Zephyr's dimpling kiſſes preſt,
Is character'd to Fancy's eye,
Her playful ſmile's ſtrange witcherie.

'Thus, tho' by Fate compell'd to rove
Far abſent from the maid I love,
Kind Fancy's magic ſun-beams pour
A gleam of gladneſs on the hour,
The clouds diſpelling that oppreſs
My inmoſt heart with heavineſs.

'And oft the ſprite with ſhapings ſweet
Delights to ſhadow a retreat,
Emboſom'd in ſome cottaged glen,
Far from the ſordid cares of men.
See! round the porch green ivies twine,
In cluſt'ring union with the vine;
And from the chimney, trailing high,
A little ſmoke juſt ſtains the ſky.

'E'en now within my reed-roof'd cot,
The world forgetting and forgot,
Methinks I feel thy boſom preſt
Againſt my highly-beating breaſt:
Methinks my lips with rapture dwell
On thy ripe lips nectarious ſwell,
And now delirious tranſports dart
Thro' pulſe and nerve, thro' brain and heart,

And now exanimate I lie,
In the ſoft trance of extacy.

'Ah! Sarah—Sarah! muſt I find
Theſe dreams but phantoms of the mind!
Theſe ſmiling viſions but the brood
Of Fancy, in her magic mood!' P. 67.

It is difficult to characteriſe the legendary tale of 'St. Romuald.' We ſhall let the reader judge for himſelf, by copying it completely.

'One day, it matters not to know
How many hundred years ago,
A Spaniard ſtopt at a poſada door:
The landlord came to welcome him, and chat
Of this and that,
For he had ſeen the traveller there before.

'Does holy Romuald dwell
Still in his cell?
The traveller aſk'd, or is the old man dead?
No, he has left his loving flock, and we
So good a Chriſtian never more ſhall ſee,
The landlord anſwer'd, and he ſhook his head.

'Ah, Sir! we knew his worth.
If ever there did live a ſaint on earth!
Why, Sir, he always uſed to wear a ſhirt
For thirty days, all ſeaſons, day and night:
Good man, he knew it was not right
For duſt and aſhes to fall out with dirt,
And then he only hung it out in the rain,
And put it on again.

'There uſed to be rare work
With him and the devil there in yonder cell,
For Satan uſed to maul him like a Turk.
There they would ſometimes fight
All through a winter's night,
From ſun-ſet until morn,
He with a croſs, the devil with his horn,
The devil ſpitting fire with might and main
Enough to make St. Michael half afraid,
He ſplaſhing holy water till he made
His red hide hiſs again,
And the hot vapour fill'd the little cell.
This was ſo common that his face became
All black and yellow with the brimſtone flame,
And then he ſmelt—Oh Lord! how he did ſmell!

'Then, Sir! to ſee how he would mortify
The fleſh! if any one had dainty fare,
Good man he would come there,
And look at all the delicate things, and cry,
O belly belly!
You would be gormandiſing now I know.
But it ſhall not be ſo,
Home to your bread and water—home I tell ye!

'But, quoth the traveller, wherefore did he leave
A flock that knew his ſaintly worth ſo well?
Why, ſaid the landlord, Sir, it ſo befell
He heard unluckily of our intent
To do him a great honour, and you know
He was not covetous of fame below,
And ſo by ſtealth one night away he went.

'What was this honour then? the traveller cried;
Why, Sir, the hoſt replied,
We thought perhaps that he might one day leave us,
And then ſhould ſtrangers have
The good man's grave,
A loſs like that would naturally grieve us,
For he'll be made a ſaint of to be ſure.
Therefore we thought it prudent to ſecure
His relics while we might,
And ſo we meant to ſtrangle him one night.' P. 97.

The narrow limits to which we are neceſſarily confined prevent us from making more extracts from this entertaining volume. We ſhall therefore conclude by obſerving, that 'Recantation,' by Mr. Coleridge; 'The Mad Woman;' 'An Evening Walk,' by Mrs. Opie; the 'Ode to Mr. Packwood;' Mrs. Robinſon's 'Jaſper;' and Mr. Cottle's 'Markoff,' appear to us to poſſeſs conſiderable merit: but that the verſes 'To a Bee;' Mr. Everard's addreſs 'To a Hedge-Sparrow;' 'The King of the Crocodiles;' divers effuſions of Mr. Charles Lloyd; 'The Wedding,' *cum multis aliis*, are diſgraced by that careleſsneſs, or rather that affectation of careleſsneſs, which we have often had occaſion to notice and reprobate of late as abſurd and pretended attempts at genuine [illegible] and eaſe.

Sermons on ſeveral Subjects and Occaſions. By the late James Riddoch, A. M. &c. 3 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 18*s. Boards.* Rivingtons.

THE ſermons contained in theſe three volumes are upon a variety of topics, but principally thoſe of a practical nature. The worthy author appears to have thought much, and juſtly, upon the ſubjects he diſcuſſes: and in his manner of handling them he diſcovers many of thoſe excellencies which conſtitute a good preacher. His plans are ſimple, yet judicious; his arguments ſound and forcible; he ſeldom fails to adduce the moſt impreſſive motives in applying acknowledged truths to the heart, as well as to the regulation of the life and conduct; while at times he indulges in flights of conſiderable ſublimity and ardour, interſperſing thoſe pointed appeals, and addreſſing thoſe pathetic exhortations to the conſcience, which we ſhould think could not fail to leave a good and abiding influence upon the minds of his hearers.

In the two ſermons in the firſt volume, entitled 'The Progreſs of our Time' and 'Reflections on a New Year,' a variety of pertinent obſervations are offered, with which we were particularly pleaſed; and which, though not altogether new, are ſtill not the leſs uſeful, as containing food for devout meditation, motives for thankfulneſs to the ſupreme being for paſt bleſſings beſtowed, and a ground of confidence in him for all future and needed favours.

In the ſermon 'On the means of Salvation,' which appears to have been preached after a ſet of diſcourſes, we find the following declaration of a faithful miniſter to his flock, whoſe conſcience bears teſtimony to this truth, that he has not 'ſhunned to declare the whole counſel of God.'

'You have now, from advent to advent, perhaps for many years, enjoyed many ſpiritual advantages, and all the means of ſalvation with which Jeſus Chriſt has bleſſed his church. Through God's good providence, the ſacraments of our religion have been rightly and duly adminiſtered, the feſtivals regularly celebrated, the holy ſcriptures that are able to make you wiſe unto ſalvation, read both in regular courſes and ſelected paſſages; opportunities of approaching the throne of God with united prayers, and pouring out your hearts before him in his houſe, have been offered three different days in every ſeven; and there is hardly a promiſe or a threatning in all the holy ſcriptures, that has not, during this courſe of inſtruction, been publiſhed within theſe walls. Scarce an example either of the mercy or juſtice of God recorded there, that has not been ſet before you; not a pattern of piety and virtue, not a vicious character marked in the word of God, that has not been pointed out either to excite you

to imitation, or to raiſe your abhorrence; not a duty incumbent on you, either as men or Chriſtians, that has not been explained and recommended by a great variety of arguments, nor any vice whoſe happy conſequences have not been expoſed, its ſeveral allurements ſet before you, and the way pointed out to reſiſt and overcome them.' Vol. i. P. 320.

We find alſo in this volume two ſermons 'On raſh and cenſorious Judgement,' which exhibit a picture of man, apparently drawn from the life, and the fruit of accurate obſervation.

'Men judge according to the paſſions and prejudices that prevail in themſelves, rather than according to the virtues or vices that appear in their neighbour's conduct. When one becomes the object of our reſentment, or perhaps interferes with our intereſt, thenceforth all his actions are viewed through a falſe and unfavourable medium, and even his virtues changed into vices. Is he devout? We accuſe him of hypocriſy. Is he otherwiſe? We ſuſpect him of impiety. Is he humble? We call it weakneſs. Is he leſs condeſcending? We accuſe him of pride. Is he diſcreet and reſerved? We call him ſullen and artful. Is he open and ſincere? We repreſent him as ſhallow and imprudent. If others commend him, we call it flattery and ignorance, and are apt to feel ſomething of what Saul felt when he heard the women ſing, Saul hath ſlain his thouſands, and David his ten thouſands. Thus paſſion, prejudice, and intereſt, like thick clouds, hang ſo conſtantly upon our minds, that we are ſeldom in a proper frame of ſpirit to judge impartially of our neighbour's conduct.' Vol. i. P. 358.

In the ſame diſcourſe we were alſo pleaſed with the following uſeful and judicious reflections, on what are commonly called *ſmall ſins*.

'There are ſome tranſgreſſions of the laws of God which are unhappily preſumed not to be very criminal, only becauſe they are too commonly practiſed in the world; and becauſe the laws of men either could not, or do not, make them objects of puniſhment and ignominy. But I ſuſpect it will be found, at that day in which the actions of every man's life ſhall be weighed in the balance of the ſanctuary, and the ſecrets of all hearts brought to light, that thoſe ſuppoſed ſmall ſins have been of all others the moſt dangerous and deſtructive to the human race; and have ruined by far the greateſt part of thoſe whom the divine juſtice ſhall diſmiſs with a ſentence of reprobation. For thoſe ſuppoſed leſs criminal tranſgreſſions of the divine commandments are more frequently ventured upon, being leſs apt to be troubleſome to the conſcience, either by a conviction of guilt, or ſenſe of danger; and of conſequence more generally prevailing among all ranks, and in every period of life, and leſs likely to be repented of, or any ways repaired: whereas crimes

which are conſidered as heinous in their nature, neceſſarily alarm the conſcience, and always ſit uneaſy upon it; beſides, that temptations to ſins of this kind occur very rarely. The unhappineſs which they occaſion, and fears they raiſe in the heart, generally prevent repetitions; and if ever the perſon come to a right mind, and endeavour to reconcile himſelf to God, ſins of this kind are firſt and moſt heartily repented of, and for ever forſaken. But ſins which the ordinary practice of the world renders familiar, and the erring imaginations of men ſuppoſe to be ſmall, are committed without ſenſe of guilt, continued in without apprehenſion of danger, and are generally the laſt that are repented of, and forſaken; in ſo much that many who ſuppoſe themſelves to be Chriſtians of the firſt rate, ſeem to be deſtitute of all feelings of conſcience, and ſenſe of duty in this reſpect. And the truth is, until a man be truly regenerated in heart, and renewed both in the ſpirit of his mind, and in his moral conduct, he will rarely have that fear of God, that vigilance to avoid, that determined reſolution againſt tranſgreſſions of the divine commandments, which are accounted leſs dangerous, and are commonly practiſed in the world, which their guilt and danger deſerves. But as a man advances in the ſpiritual life, he will find ſuch ſins moſt difficult to be avoided, moſt vexatious by their frequent aſſaults, moſt likely to prove fatal to the ſpirit, and of all others requiring the greateſt ſelf-knowledge, ſelf-command, and moſt unremitting vigilance.' Vol. i. P. 345.

The preacher then proceeds to deſcant on the evil of raſh and cenſorious judgement, as one of the ſins of this numerous claſs; with reſpect to which men need to be moſt frequently and earneſtly admoniſhed. Indeed, the whole of the two diſcourſes on this ſubject cannot be peruſed without profit, if the reader have the ſkill to make a judicious application of them.

The concluding ſermon in the volume, 'On the Conduct of the Lepers,' contains alſo many excellent obſervations, and diſcovers much knowledge of the deceitful operations of the human heart.

Paſſing on to the ſecond volume, we find many forcible remarks, well worthy of the peruſal of youth, on the evil conſequences of early profligacy, in two diſcourſes from Eccles. xi. 9. The preacher, moreover, ſets before his hearers, in plain and ſtriking language, the important duty of being always prepared for death. Our readers will probably be pleaſed with the following additional ſpecimen of Mr. Riddoch's manner, and of his animated and lively addreſs.

'With reſpect to the neceſſity of being *always ready*, I need be very brief on this topic, becauſe this congregation has of late received repeated and ſtriking warnings to this effect, and example upon example of the uncertainty of human life. The unſearchable providence of God has preached to us upon this text with a parti-

cular emphasis, and with a pathos that far exceeds the voice of man, —applied the awful instruction to the eye, the ear, and the heart; and in order to make it more generally known and convincing, God has been pleased to remove, by a hasty summons, not one or two of the most obscure, but several who by their rank or business were most universally known to this congregation. I hope in God, and believe, from the ordinary tenor of their lives, that they were prepared for their change; but had it been otherwise, what could they have done for their salvation? What could they have done to make their peace with God and their neighbour? Hardly were they alarmed with sickness, when they were seized by death; hardly was the body disordered, till it was lifeless dust; and scarce had the spirit time for a thought, till it was breathed out into eternity. Consider how it would fare with you, ye thoughtless sons of folly, if ye were thus cut short in your vicious courses, if ye died in a debauch, and were hurried from the scenes of lewdness to the awful tribunal of an angry judge; if your tongue faultered, and your heart fainted to revive no more, amidst a volley of blasphemy, or while you were uttering the lascivious language of Sodom! All your schemes of future repentance would be blasted at once; all your hopes of mercy and forgiveness gone for ever, and your souls hurried out to another existence, without any hopes of acceptance with God, without any excuse to palliate your guilt, and without those dispositions which life was designed to acquire, and heaven intended to reward. Or how should a busy worldling fare, if he received such a hasty summons! No time to make restitution, no time to draw off his heart and affections from the world, no time to undo the effects of his wickedness, or alter, in the smallest degree, the temper of his heart; but he is sent at once to the supreme tribunal, with the guilt of all his fraud and oppression hanging on his conscience, with worldly wicked thoughts in his mind, deceitful projects in his heart, and upon every power and faculty of his soul marks of reprobation, and proofs of rebellion against his God. Let each of us, then, ask ourselves, what hopes we should have, if we were to die with our present dispositions of heart, and conduct of life? Would you choose to depart with such a vicious habit rivetted in your heart, or such a criminal desire burning in your breast? Would you choose to carry with you into another world, that hatred, pride, or envy, which you have so long fostered in this world? Would you die without having repented of, and repaired, in some measure, such an injury you have done to your neighbour's reputation or fortune? I suspect there are few of us but will find, that there is something about us which would need to be changed, before we depart hence, and be no more. And if there be something that needs to be changed, why do we not set about it immediately, since the next moment may render all change impossible, for there is neither work nor device in the grave? In a word, consider, on the one hand, that as the tree falleth, so it must lie, after death repentance is useless, the season of

probation is over, actions muſt appear as they are, and ſentence ſhall be paſſed according to the deeds done in the body. Reflect, on the other hand, to how many accidents the life of man is expoſed from without, and upon what delicate feeble machinery it depends within; in how many different diſguiſes the king of terrors wages war with the human race; ſometimes aſſaulting them with outward violence, ſometimes carrying them off by inward attacks, ſometimes gradually ſapping their conſtitutions in a ſlow conſumption, and at others in an inſtant ſtopping the ſprings of life in a fit of apoplexy; ſometimes riding in triumph in the terrors of an earthquake, in a flaſh of lightning, or in the furious rage of an angry ſea; ſometimes he comes ſilent and unſuſpected in a breath of infected air, lies concealed in a grain of ſand, or penetrates to the inmoſt ſprings of life with the food we take to ſatisfy our hunger, and the drink we uſe to quench our thirſt. In a word, ſo various are his diſguiſes, ſo inviſible are his approaches, ſo numerous are his inſtruments of deſtruction, ſo ſecret are his ſnares, that when we walk abroad, we are not ſure but he may ſeize us at the next ſtep; when we retire to our cloſets, and ſhut the door behind us, even there we may be forced to ſay, Haſt thou found me, O mine enemy? When we ſit down to table with our friends, he may appear among us, like Satan among the ſons of God; when we retire to our reſt, our bed may conceal him, and in the ſilent midnight hour, he may preſent the awful ſummons to the ſoul, "The hour is come; prepare to appear before God." Vol. ii. P. 12.

We were alſo pleaſed with the ſermon in this volume which was preached upon Aſh-Wedneſday, entitled, 'Of publicly denouncing Curſes upon Sinners.' Mr. Riddoch gives a good explanation of the nature and deſign of that ancient eccleſiaſtical holiday; whilſt he applies the ſubject in a plain, faithful, and affectionate warning to various claſſes of hearers.

There are likewiſe in this volume two excellent ſermons upon morning and evening devotion, from which we forbear to make any extracts, rather wiſhing to refer the whole of them to the reader's ſerious peruſal.

In volume the third we find ſome very juſt and ſeaſonable remarks on 'that irreſolution of ſentiment and judgement, which, though it adhere to the belief of the Goſpel in general, yet is continually heſitating between modes of worſhip, ſyſtems of doctrine, and ſets of ſpeculative notions.'

'There are ſome who are never ſettled in their religious opinions, and, were it in their power, would never let any thing be ſettled in religion. Their ears are itching, their minds unſtable, their judgment weak, and every thing that ſeems new ſeizes them, like an infection. They are ever ſhifting from one ſet of notions and principles to another, ſometimes to the better, and ſometimes to the worſe, but never long to their own ſatisfaction; ever learning, but never able to come to the knowledge of the truth.

'Were the effects of this ficklenefs nothing more than a few harmleſs abſurdities in opinion, men might be left to grow wiſe by experience; but they are ſo perplexed about what they ſhall believe, that they think too little of what they ought to do; ſo much employed about reforming religion, that they forget that reformation, which religion itſelf was deſigned to produce, I mean, to turn pride into humility, worldly mindedneſs into charity, licentiouſneſs and luxury into ſobriety, and ſelf-denial, and impatience and diſcontent, into patience and reſignation.—In truth, it fares with them, with regard to religion, as we ſee it does with men in common life, when they are unſteady, always ſhifting from project to project, and always changing from buſineſs to buſineſs, we ſeldom find that they better their fortune; and juſt ſo, when men are always ſhifting principles, and altering their opinions, we rarely ſee that they improve much in ſolid goodneſs, or excel in the real graces and virtues of the Chriſtian profeſſion. For principles muſt ſettle in the mind, before they can have a real influence on the conduct. A ſoul always wavering in ſentiment can never be ſteady in conduct; and he who is not rooted and grounded in his faith, will never reſolutely proſecute any ſcheme of ſanctifying his temper, and improving in practical virtues.' Vol. iii. P. 60.

We could give a variety of other quotations which would ſerve to repreſent the preacher in a very favourable point of view; but we think the ſpecimens already offered ſufficient to convey to our readers a full knowledge of his general merit.

We were leaſt pleaſed with the ſermon entitled, 'The Preparation neceſſary previous to Whit-Sunday,' preached from Acts ii. 38, 39; as, were it neceſſary, we think we could prove that the preacher has, in various reſpects, miſtaken the meaning of that paſſage.

We could not help, likewiſe, noticing ſome Scotticiſms which now and then appear, ſuch as the ſubſtitution of *would* for *ſhould*, &c.

But without being faſtidious, we ſtill affirm that we have derived conſiderable ſatisfaction from the peruſal of theſe diſcourſes. We think in a variety of reſpects they have conſiderable merit, and whilſt they ſerve to place the author of them in a reſpectable point of view as a divine, they may be profitably peruſed by the public, and become a uſeful addition to the library of the ſtudent.

Conſiderations on Milton's early Reading, and the Prima Stamina of his Paradiſe Loſt; together with Extracts from a Poet of the Sixteenth Century. In a Letter to William Falconer, M.D. from Charles Dunſter, M. A. 8*vo.* 5*s. Boards.* Evans. 1800.

THE early reading of illuſtrious authors is certainly a ſubject of intereſting and uſeful inquiry. When we are enabled to trace the origin of ideas, we poſſeſs a fortunate key to the developement of the human mind. And in the detection of thoughts and phraſes borrowed by men of genius from writers who have preceded them, much inſtruction may be derived; not only from obſervation of what they ſelect as worthy of imitation, but alſo of what they reject as faulty or irrelevant to their purpoſe. That Milton has copiouſly availed himſelf of the ſtores of ancient literature has been fully demonſtrated by the commentators on his immortal works; but the obligations which he owes to his Engliſh predeceſſors have not been ſo generally or ſo clearly aſcertained. The object of the little volume now under our conſideration is to prove, as far as ſuch a ſubject admits of proof, that Milton became at a very early period of his life acquainted with Joſhua Sylveſter's tranſlation of the works of Du Bartas, and that the peruſal of Du Bartas's Divine Weeks 'led to Milton's great poem, not only by awakening his paſſion for ſacred poeſy, but by abſolutely furniſhing what Dr. Johnſon in his preface to Lauder's pamphlet terms the *prima ſtamina* of Paradiſe Loſt.'

In order to demonſtrate that Milton was acquainted with Sylveſter's tranſlation of Du Bartas, Mr. Dunſter in the firſt place aſſerts what may be denominated the antecedent probability of ſuch an event. From his twelfth year Milton was moſt paſſionately fond of reading. The quarto edition of Du Bartas was publiſhed in 1613, and the folio edition in 1621, at which latter epoch Milton was juſt arrived at the age of thirteen. That Sylveſter's verſion of Du Bartas's work was received with great favour by the public, is evinced by the fact that it paſſed through two quarto and two folio editions in the courſe of thirty years; and it may naturally be ſuppoſed that a poem thus popular would attract the eager attention of an inquiſitive youth. In confirmation of this ſuppoſition, Mr. Dunſter obſerves that Sylveſter's Du Bartas was printed by Humphrey Lownes, who, in the year 1613, lived on Bread-ſtreet-hill, in the vicinity of Milton's father, then reſident in Bread-ſtreet. Sylveſter himſelf was certainly, and his printer moſt probably, infected by the puritanic principles by which Milton's family were diſtinguiſhed, and it is not perhaps an unreaſonable conjecture that neighbours of the ſame religious faith (and Mr. Dunſter might have added, *à fortiori*, of a faith differing from that of the eſtabliſhment) would be in ſome degree con-

nected by habits of friendly intercourſe. This intercourſe would almoſt infallibly throw into the hands of the juvenile ſtudent the *opus palmarium* of the tranſlator and of the printer.

This is a conciſe view of the arguments, *à priori*, by which Mr. Dunſter endeavours to eſtabliſh the truth of his poſition that Milton was acquainted with the works of Du Bartas as tranſlated by Sylveſter.

In proof that his conjecture is ſupported by fact, Mr. Dunſter quotes from the works of Du Bartas, terms, phraſes, and thoughts, which he apprehends Milton has condeſcended to tranſplant into his garden of ever-blooming ſweets. Some of his inſtances appear to us irrelevant, ſeveral doubtful, but many are deciſive. In the firſt of theſe claſſes we muſt number the inſtance which occurs, p. 19, where Mr. Dunſter, ſurely without due conſideration, imagines that when Milton characteriſes the water of the Jordan as *Jordan's clear ſtream*, he borrows his epithet from theſe lines of Sylveſter:

'*Clear Jordan's* ſelf, in his dry oſier bed,
Bluſhing for ſhame, was fain to hide his head.'

In the ſecond order we may place the following:

'*Mil.* Why turned Jordan towards his cryſtal fountains?
'*Syl.* And tow'rd the cryſtal of his double ſource,
Compelled Jordan to retreat his courſe.'

The following inſtances appear to us deciſive:

'But full ſoon they did devour
The tawny king with all his power.]

'Thus exactly, and with the ſame fine effect, Sylveſter;

'But contrary the Red Sea did devour
The barb'rous tyrant with his mighty power.' P. 31.

'————thou goddeſs fair and free,]

'In Sylveſter's Du Bartas, it is ſaid, God created the angels,

'————immortal, innocent,
Good, fair and free;——

'Haſte thee, nymph, and bring with thee
Jeſt and youthful Jollity;
Quips, and cranks, and wanton wiles,
Nods and becks and wreathed ſmiles,
Such as hang on Hebe's cheek, &c. &c.]

'Pray juſt caſt your eye on Du Bartas's groupe of attendants on the "langhter loving" goddeſs;

'Fair dainty Venus,————
Whom wanton dalliance, dancing, and delight,
Smiles, witty wiles, youth, love, and beauty bright,
With ſoft blind Cupids ever more conſort.

'Then to come, in ſpite of ſorrow,
And at my window bid good-morrow.]

'Biſhop Newton takes occaſion, from this paſſage, to admit, with Dryden, that "rhyme was not Milton's talent." "Several things," he obſerves, "are ſaid by Milton, which would not have been ſaid, but for the ſake of the rhyme;" and he particularly refers to the "in ſpite of ſorrow," in this place; which he intimates to be what we uſed to call at ſchool a botch, a mere expletive, foiſted in *pro carminis uſu*. You and I, (who have a higher opinion of Milton's talent for rhyme) ſhould not, I believe, eaſily accede to this accuſation againſt him.—I had once ſuppoſed it intended ſtrongly to characteriſe the enlivening effect of the lark's matin ſong, ſo as to diſpel at once any ſorrows of the preceding night; and poſſibly with a recollection of the pſalmiſt's, "Sorrow may endure for a night: but joy cometh in the morning." Pſalm xxx. 5.—But I think you will agree with me, that we muſt, in this inſtance, look only to Sylveſter's Du Bartas: where the poet is deſcribing the happineſs of him who leads a country life;

'The chearful birds, chirping him ſweet good morrow,
With Nature's muſic do beguile his ſorrow.

'While the cock, &c.
Stoutly ſtruts his dames before.]

'Ev'n as a peacock———
To woo his miſtreſs, ſtrutting ſtately by her, &c. &c.

'Meadows trim with daiſies pied,]

'Trim is no unfrequent epithet for meadows in Sylveſter:

'——— the flowers that paint the fields ſo trim.

'The eternal verdure, and the trim proſpect
Of plenteous paſtures,———

'Pied, for variegated, is alſo Sylveſtrian.—Moſt readers, I ſuſpect, have applied pied to the daiſies themſelves; and I confeſs that I attributed Milton's "pied daiſies" to Shakſpeare's

'—— daiſies pied and violets blue,

in the ſong, at the end of As You Like It. But we may as well underſtand his meadows to have been variegated with daiſies; as are thoſe in Sylveſter's Du Bartas:

'In May the meads are not ſo pied with flowers.

'Where, in his deſcription of Eden, we have the ſame idea;

'With thouſand dies he motleys all the meads.

'Pied is there alſo applied to flowers themſelves;

'———each bed and border
Is, like pied poſies, diverſe dies and order.

'———their ſav'ry dinner—
Of herbs and other country meſſes,
Which the neat-handed Phyllis dreſſes.]

'Sylveſter deſcribes the fruits of the garden of Eden, yielding

'More wholeſome food than all the meſſes,
That now taſte-curious wanton dreſſes.

'——— the jocund rebecks ſound;]

'The rebeck, as Mr. Warton has noticed in the ſecond edition of his Milton, is mentioned by Sylveſter as an inſtrument with ſtrings of catgut;

'But wiery cymbals, rebecks' ſinews twin'd,
Sweet virginals, and cornet's curled wind.

'To many a youth, and many a maid,
Dancing, &c.]

'I think I have ſeen it ſomewhere obſerved, that this line much expreſſes the bounding of a dance. I will beg you to compare the feſtive dance of Solomon's courtiers, maſked as heathen deities, in the revels celebrating his nuptials;

'Here many a Phœbus, and here many a muſe,—
Here many a Juno, many a Pallas here,
Here many a Venus, and Diana clear,
Here many a horned ſatyr, many a Pan,
Here wood-nymphs, flood-nymphs, many a fairy fawn,
With luſty friſks and lively bounds, &c. &c.' P. 60.

'I ſhall conclude the preſent ſpeculation (which I hope you will not think totally unfounded,) by endeavouring to ſhew you from the beauty and ſublimity of many paſſages in Sylveſter's Tranſlation of Du Bartas's Weeks, that it is, in fact, a work very likely to have engroſſed no ſmall ſhare of Milton's attention, and, in many places, no common degree of his young poetic admiration. Here I ſhall lay before you paſſages broken, as well as connected; compound epithets of effect; elevated, or apparently highly-original phraſes;—in ſhort, whatever I felt, or fancied, was likely, in any ſhape, to have ſtruck either the ear, or the imagination, of the young poetical reader.' P. 120.

The extracts from Du Bartas are very copious, extending from p. 121 to p. 214 inclusive.

That Milton had attentively read the works of Du Bartas Mr. Dunſter has ſatisfactorily proved. That Du Bartas's weeks and days are the *prima ſtamina* of Paradiſe Loſt is not, in our opinion, rendered probable. But it is nevertheleſs certain that Mr. Dunſter has opened a field which future com-

mentators on Milton will do well to examine with minute attention *, and we have to return him our thanks for the entertainment and inſtruction we have derived from the peruſal of his work, which is compoſed in the genuine ſpirit of criticiſm.

Latin Proſody made eaſy, or Rules and Authorities for the Quantity of final Syllables in general, and of the Increments of Nouns and Verbs, interſperſed with occaſional Obſervations and Conjectures on the Pronunciation of the ancient Greeks and Romans; to which are added Directions for ſcanning and compoſing different Kinds of Verſe, followed by Analytic Remarks on the harmonious Structure of the Hexameter, together with Synoptic Tables of Quantity for every Declenſion and Conjugation. By J. Carey. 8*vo.* 5*s. Boards.* Robinſons.

THE ſubject of proſody we deem of eſſential importance to every ſtudent who is deſirous of reading the claſſics of antiquity with genuine reliſh, and of cultivating this branch of learning with critical diſcernment. In the generality of our private ſchools, in very many of our public, and almoſt univerſally, we believe, through the northern part of our iſland, this branch of elementary diſcipline is moſt lamentably neglected, to the ſcandal and diſgrace of the maſters who preſide over theſe ſeminaries, and who may be juſtly regarded as fraudulent empirics in their art, and robbers of the public weal; for we turn with diſguſt from a boy of eager appetite for learning, who receives no more delight from the poetry of Virgil in its native arrangement, than from the ſame poetry diſmembered and mangled in the *marginal order* of a vulgar edition, and this through the ſupineneſs or ignorance of his inſtructor. We find no difficulty, therefore, in pronouncing an accurate and comprehenſive knowledge of proſodaic rules abſolutely neceſſary to every votary of the Greek and Roman muſes.

The general defect of the treatiſes on this ſubject, which have fallen under our inſpection, is a technical inelegance and a jejune inſipidity, which weary and diſhearten the ſtudent, who requires a mixture of pleaſant inſtruction to qualify the unintereſting tedioufneſs of long and recondite precepts; and we are happy in feeling ourſelves able to recommend, very heartily and very conſcientiouſly, Mr. Carey's publication, as learned, and intelligible at the ſame time to every ſcholar; as minute, but not frivolous; as comprehenſive, but not comparatively

---

* Warton and Todd have quoted Sylveſter's tranſlation of Du Bartas, but they do not ſeem to have been much acquainted with it.

burdenſome; as adapted to the capacity and information of the boy, and yet conveying ſome leſſons of inſtruction, to which the ripeſt proficients in the Latin language may profitably liſten.

From a publication of this kind, ſo mixed and multifarious in its nature, it is not poſſible to give ſuch quotations as ſhall furniſh an adequate repreſentation of the whole: we ſhall produce, however, a few caſual paſſages, by which our readers will be enabled to form a tolerably adequate opinion of Mr. Carey's abilities in this province, and the rectitude of our judgement in ſo liberal a commendation of his work.

'In ſome parts of theſe ſheets I may be thought to have unprofitably waſted much time and paper on objects of very trifling importance—in beſtowing, for inſtance, two pages on the queſtion whether *fumat* was intended for the preſent or the paſt tenſe in Æneid ii, 3—and extending to ſtill greater length the inquiry whether Virgil ever wrote "Obſtupui, ſteterUntque comæ." If, on theſe and ſome other occaſions, the reader think me unneceſſarily diffuſe, my apology is this—When an obſcure individual like me dares to diſſent from a generally received opinion, or from the opinion of ſome man of eſtabliſhed reputation—however un-important the point on which he happens to differ—he lays himſelf open to all the ſeverity of cenſure if he venture to expreſs his diſſent un-accompanied by the allegation of his reaſons. Hence it becomes his duty to ſtate them in a full and explicit manner: and the public have a right to expect that mark of deference on his part.

'As to the long-conteſted queſtion of the ſubjunctive *-RIMUS* and *-RITIS*, I am leſs apprehenſive of being condemned for the pains I have taken in my endeavour to bring it to a final deciſion, whether my opinion be adopted or not.—But ſome of my readers—who happen not to recollect the ſcrupulous attention paid by Cicero to poetic feet and meaſures, the ſerious earneſtneſs with which he diſcuſſes them in his didactic compoſitions, and the fond predilection he entertained for the concluding ditrochee which was ſo grateful to Roman ears—may be tempted to ſmile when I declare my firm perſuaſion that he could not have pronounced the *-RI-* of the preterperfect otherwiſe than long at the cloſe of the following ſentences—"Quanti me ſemper fēcĕrītĭs," Orat. for Milo, ſect. 36, and "Quamquam, quid facturi fueritis, non dubitem, quum videam quid fēcĕrītĭs," for Ligarius, ſect. 8.

'However, when thoſe readers conſider the general burſt of applauſe excited by the harmonious cadence alone of the final ditrochee in "Patris dictum ſapiens temeritas filii cōmprŏbăvit," as we learn from Cicero, in his Orator, ſect. 214—when they reflect, that, in his laboured harangue for Milo, I find, on a haſty glance over the pages, at leaſt a hundred and ſeventeen periods or members of periods concluding with the ditrochee, but not a ſingle period which

terminates with a pæon of one long and three ſhort ſyllables—and when they take into the account the ſtrong emphaſis laid on *feceritis* in at leaſt the ſecond of the above quotations—they may perhaps allow that my perſuaſion is not groundleſs, particularly when ſupported by the authority of Probus, quoted in page 54.' P. iv.

'A vowel is long by poſition, when it immediately precedes two conſonants, or one double conſonant (X or Z), or the letter I (or J) followed by a vowel in the ſame word, as Tērra, Arāxes, Gāza, Mājor, Trōja, Ajax.

'Sub juga jam Seres, jam *bārbarus* iſſet Arāxes. (Lucan.
Sicelides Muſæ, paullo *mājora* canamus. (Virgil.
Sacra ſuosque tibi commendat *Trōja* penates. (Virgil.

'The reaſon why the J makes the preceding vowel long, is that it is itſelf a vowel, not a conſonant, and unites with the preceding vowel to compoſe a diphthong, thus, Mai-or, Troi-a, Ai-ax, in the ſame manner as Maia, Maius, Caius, Baiæ, Aiunt.' P. 9.

In our opinion all words, in which the J is ſo ſituated, would be pronounced to great advantage, as abundantly more melodious, after the Greek enunciation, *maiora* and *Troia*, in preference to *majora* and *Troja*.

'But Greek vocatives in A, from nominatives in TES (changed to TA in ſome branches of the Doric dialect), are ſhort, as Polydectă, Oreſtă, Æetă, Thyeſtă, &c. (See Maittaire, and Clarke, on the nominative Ἵπποτα for Ἵπποτης, Iliad A, 175.)' P. 61.

This change of TES into TA, or more properly this ſingular uſe of the terminative TA in the nominative inſtead of TES, is not aſſignable to the *Doric* dialect, but rather to the *Æolian*. Where the Greek η is changed into α by the Dorians, its quantity is preſerved under the alteration, and continues long, whilſt the final α in ἱππότα, μετιέτα, and others of this deſcription, is invariably ſhort.

'The anapæſtic verſe conſiſts of four feet, which, in the pure anapæſtic, are all anapæſts, as

....Phărĕtrāe-|-quĕ grăvēs | dătĕ ſæ-|-vă fĕrō.... (Seneca.

'But the pure anapæſtic rarely occurs: we frequently ſee the dactyl and ſpondee admitted; and ſometimes the anapæſtic verſe does not contain a ſingle anapæſt.

Gĕnŭs, ō | pŭĕrī | nōtī | pĕr ĭter. (Seneca.
Vērbĕră | tērgō | cædānt | hŭmĕros. (Seneca.
Tērtĭă | mīsīt | būccĭnă | sīgnum. (Seneca.

'According to Alvarez's rule, the ſecond or fourth foot never is a dactyl. If indeed we take for our criterion the anapæſtics in Seneca's tragedies, the obſervation is true: but, if we look to the Greek tragedians, we find that they did not thus limit the admiſſion of the dactyl, as appears from Æſchylus—

Ιτε μαν | ΑΣΤΤΑ-|-ναπτας | μακαρας.. (Suppl. 1025.
Της πολυ-|-τεκνου | Τηθυος | ΕΚΓΟΝΑ. (Prom. Vinct. 137.

Nor were the dactyl and ſpondee the only feet ſubſtituted for the anapæſt. The pyrrichius, the trochee, the tribrachys, were likewiſe admitted, as in the following examples from Æſchylus and Seneca.

Φιλος εσ-|-τι βεβαι-|-ŏτĕ-|-ρος σοι. (Prom. Vinct. 127.
Cā ă | ŏ | *nāntĕ* | cēntūm | pŏpŭli.. (Herc. Œt. 1875.
Mĕgără | parvūm | cŏmĭtā-|-tă grĕgem. (Herc. F. 203.'

P. 155.

In the former part of this quotation, method and propriety required an exemplification of a *ſpondaic* anapæſt by the production of ſuch a verſe; and, in the latter part, the verſe from Æſchylus is the 127th in number in no edition, and the 297th in Pauw's republication of Stanley. This typographical error, however, is of trivial importance in compariſon with the author's own miſtake, who does not ſeem to apprehend the diſtinction between an *anapæſtic baſis* and the common *anapæſtic verſe*. The baſis uniformly concludes a ſyſtem of anapæſts, and frequently a period in the ſyſtem; and is univerſally *two times*, one long ſyllable or two ſhort ſyllables, of leſs length than the other, but ſo modified as to form, we believe, univerſally the concluſion of an hexameter.

Our author then refers us to p. 139 for ſome further remarks on the anapæſt; in which alſo he is inaccurate. No final ſyllable in an anapæſtic verſe of the Greek tragedians is *common*, in the grammatical ſenſe of that term, except the laſt ſyllable of the baſis; which, like the ſame ſyllable in hexameters, or pentameters, may be either long or ſhort by nature: but in the anapæſtic ſeries, if a ſhort ſyllable terminate an anapæſtic verſe, this either happens in the caſe of a word which admits the paragogic ν, or that ſyllable is lengthened by the introductory conſonants of the following verſe; or again, no ſyllable of an anapæſtic verſe can be ſhort at the end, though naturally ſhort, if ſucceeded in the next verſe by a word whoſe initial letters would lengthen that ſyllable in a lineal arrangement. This peculiarity was pointed out by Dr. Bentley in his diſputations on Phalaris, and is technically denominated the *ſynaphia* of the anapæſtic ſeries.

Some other inaccuracies may be found in this volume, which will not eſcape the learned author on a reviſal of his work; and, as another edition, we ſhould think, will ſoon be demanded by the public, we will ſuggeſt a few hints, by which, in our judgement, that edition may be conſiderably improved.

As all poſſible brevity, conſiſtent with perſpicuity, is of high moment in ſuch a publication, both on account of the expence,

which is always prejudicial to the reception of a ſchool-book, and the impolicy of burdening the ſcholar's memory or fatiguing his attention by the accumulation of a ſingle line not abſolutely neceſſary; we ſhould recommend the ſhortening of ſome occaſional digreſſions, and the entire ſuppreſſion of others. In our opinion, Alvarez's rules ſhould be totally baniſhed not only in their collective ſtate, as exhibited in the introduction, but in their detailed form, as conſtituting the texts and diviſions of our author's remarks and illuſtrations throughout the volume. Such ſyſtems, however ingenious in themſelves, contain of neceſſity ſo much nonſenſical and crabbed verſe as to become very irkſome to the learner, at a time of life when their utility is but imperfectly apprehended; and, whatever may be the practice in a neighbouring iſland, no judicious maſter, we think, will chooſe to adopt them here. We ſhould prefer Mr. Carey's own ſtatement of his rules, in the ſame order if he pleaſe, but in his own Engliſh. The ſynopſis alſo, which occupies the *thirteen* laſt pages of the book, we ſhould gladly find omitted. We will venture likewiſe to pronounce decidedly againſt ſuch a multitude of examples in plain caſes; by which the book is, on the whole amount, very unneceſſarily ſwollen. Take the following ſpecimen, as an illuſtration of our remarks.

'The plural increments I and U are ſhort, as Quĭbus, Trĭbus, Montĭbus, Lacŭbus, Verŭbus:—except Būbus, which has the penultima long, for the reaſon alleged in page 34.

'Vivite felices, quĭbus eſt fortuna peracta... (Virgil.
Necte trĭbus nodis ternos, Amarylli, colores. (Virgil.
Montĭbus in noſtris ſolus tibi certet Amyntas. (Virgil.
Præmia de lacŭbus proxima muſta tuis. (Ovid.
Pars in fruſta ſecant, verŭbusque trementia figunt. (Virgil.
Non profecturis litora būbus aras. (Ovid.'

P. 45.

Half of theſe inſtances, in our opinion, would have been ſufficient: and very numerous curtailments of a ſimilar kind may be allowed without impairing the intrinſic value of this truly reſpectable and edifying performance.

The Principles of Algebra. By *William Frend.* 8*vo.* 5*s.* *Boards.* Robinſons.

The Principles of Algebra: or the true Theory of Equations eſtabliſhed on Mathematical Demonſtration. Part the Second. By *William Frend.* 8*vo.* 3*s.* *Boards.* Robinſons.

THE firſt of theſe two volumes we have already briefly noticed in our XXIId Vol. N. A. p. 345. The publication of the ſecond ſeems to have completed the author's plan, and we ſhall therefore be more full in our inveſtigation of it.

The ſcience of algebra is as pleaſant to the ſpeculative recluſe as it is to the practical geometrician, and we have often been ſurpriſed at its not being more widely cultivated in the preſent ſtudious and enlightened age; for, excepting the univerſities themſelves, there are few public ſchools, even among thoſe of very conſiderable reputation, where it is ever introduced as a branch of learning at all; and even where it is ſo admitted, from want of ſufficient knowledge or method in the teacher, the pupil ſeldom advances beyond the portico of this truly elegant and magnificent ſtructure, and too generally retreats diſguſted with the labour it has already coſt him, and incapable of diſcerning the connection of part with part, or the general uſe and benefit of the entire ſyſtem.

Much of this evil, we are ready to believe, reſults from a want of a proper elementary treatiſe or introduction to this important ſcience, which has often been denominated abſtruſe, but which is no otherwiſe ſo than in conſequence of ſuch a deficiency. In reality, from the quaint dialogue introduction of Fenning to the voluminous and operoſe quartos of Saunderſon, we are acquainted with no one book of rudiments, in our own language, which we could readily recommend to ſtudents as compriſing the very neceſſary qualifications of conciſeneſs and perſpicuity, or conveying to them the principles of algebraic algorithm. We are happy, therefore, to meet with the publication before us, which, notwithſtanding a variety of innovations of which we cannot altogether approve, is compoſed with a far more lucid order and ſimplicity than any elementary book we are at preſent acquainted with; and as ſuch we feel no heſitation in recommending it to our private tutors engaged in domeſtic education, as well as to the public academies in which algebra forms a part of the learning diſſeminated.

'If upon this ſuggeſtion,' ſays the author, 'any maſter of a ſchool ſhould adopt the mode propoſed, I ſhould be much obliged to him to acquaint me with the reſult of his experience; and indeed if the maſters, uſhers, or tutors of ſchools, academies, or colleges, ſhould, on examination, find this work adapted to their uſe, I ſhould eſteem it a favour to have any faults in it pointed out to me by them, and to receive their hints for future improvement.

'To prepare a boy for the reading of this book, we cannot begin too early; and the preparation is ſimple. As ſoon as he begins to write figures, the algebraical marks ſhould be introduced into his copies. Thus his firſt copy might be in addition, after a time in ſubtraction, ſoon after in multiplication, then in diviſion.

$$3 + 4 = 7$$
$$8 - 5 = 3$$
$$9 \times 9 = 81$$
$$24 \div 8 = 3$$

'On ſhowing the copy-book, the boy ſhould always read his copy to the maſter. Thus three and four equal ſeven; from eight take five, the remainder equals three; nine into 9 equals eighty-one; twenty-four divided by eight equals three. By degrees a letter may be placed in his copies. Thus $a = 6$. $\therefore 5a = 30$; and thus with very little trouble a boy will by mere reading become not only as well acquainted with the marks $+ - \times \div < = > \therefore$ as with the figures 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9, but underſtand the principles laid down for the ſolution of ſimple equations. During this time, the boy, it is preſumed, is learning the firſt rules in arithmetic; and as ſoon as he can add, ſubtract, multiply, and divide whole numbers, and can juſt do a ſum in the rule of three, I recommend that he ſhould enter upon the principles of algebra.

'Allowing this mode to be good, ſome one may perhaps aſk me, why I ſhould think of adding to the number of books already written upon this ſubject, and not content myſelf with referring to the authors in common uſe? I am prepared to anſwer the queſtion. Half a dozen years experience, as tutor of a college in the univerſity of Cambridge, taught me the difficulties under which young men labour in endeavouring to learn algebra by the common mode. Some throw away their books before they can do a ſimple equation; others, with more courage, get through equations of the ſecond order, but are afraid to venture on the ſecond part of Maclaurin's Algebra; others wade through a few chapters, but are frightened, and with good reaſon, at Cardan's Rule; the bold ones ruſh forward through thick and thin, till after having made, as they think, ſome curious diſcoveries on the limits of negative roots, they finiſh their courſe in deſpair, in endeavouring to find the number of impoſſible roots in an equation of n dimenſions.' Part i. P. vii.

We have already obſerved that there are a variety of innovations in the work before us, for which we ſee little or no reaſon, and conſequently of which we cannot approve. We here particularly allude to the violent expulſion, without a due and legal trial by jury (our author is a politician—he alludes to the politics of the preſent day even in this iſolated treatiſe upon algebra—and he will forgive us, therefore, if we compare his conduct in the inſtance before us to that which expatriated many of the legiſlators of France to Cayenne during a late revolution)—we ſay without a ſufficient trial by jury of

those old-established and very valuable members of the *institution* before us, the terms negative quantities, square, cube, biquadrate, surfolid, &c.

'The first error in teaching the principles of algebra is obvious on perusing a few pages only in the first of Maclaurin's Algebra. Numbers are there divided into two sorts, positive and negative; and an attempt is made to explain the nature of negative numbers, by allusions to book-debts and other arts. Now, when a person cannot explain the principles of a science without reference to metaphor, the probability is, that he has never thought accurately upon the subject. A number may be greater or less than another number; it may be added to, taken from, multiplied into, and divided by another number; but in other respects it is very untractable: though the whole world should be destroyed, one will be one, and three will be three; and no art whatever can change their nature. You may put a mark before one, which it will obey: it submits to be taken away from another number greater than itself, but to attempt to take it away from a number less than itself is ridiculous. Yet this is attempted by algebraists, who talk of a number less than nothing, of multiplying a negative number into a negative number and thus producing a positive number, of a number being imaginary. Hence they talk of two roots to every equation of the second order, and the learner is to try which will succeed in a given equation: they talk of solving an equation, which requires two impossible roots to make it solvible: they can find out some impossible numbers, which, being multiplied together, produce unity. This is all jargon, at which common sense recoils; but, from its having been once adopted, like many other figments, it finds the most strenuous supporters among those who love to take things upon trust, and hate the labour of a serious thought.' Part i. p. x.

'Some care has been taken in endeavouring to adapt the language for the persons to whose use this book is dedicated, that is, to English boys and girls. Hence the terms quadratic, cubic, biquadratic, and the like, as applied to equations, are exploded; and the words square, cube, solid, surfolid, as applied to numbers, are for the same reason rejected. But habit will sometimes prevail over our best designs. Thus, from the long use of the word square, it escaped my correcting hand in page 105, line 12, where, for square, the words "second power" should be inserted. Square and cube are modes of continued quantity, and cannot be applied to numbers: the absurdity is seen in the use of the word surfolid; for, if there could be such a thing as a solid number, there might be a surfolid number, and a thing might be more than solid, which is absurd. People err much in supposing that a word is of little consequence, if it is explained. If that word has a very different meaning in other respects, the learner will confound frequently the different meanings, and pass through life without having a clear idea

upon the ſubject. In educating children, we ſhould take care not to uſe a word above their comprehenſion, nor, by our authority, to impreſs a poſition on their minds which is not true. If we teach them little, we ſhould teach them that little well: but we are doing them a real injury, when we fill their heads with a jumble of words, or with falſe and incoherent notions.' Part i. P. xii.

The real fact is, that, in the education of children, every ſyllable taught them is at firſt far beyond their comprehenſion. The very commencement of ſpelling is ſufficient to evince this, or even the very commencement of the alphabet, without having recourſe to any thing beyond. Throughout the whole period of education, the moſt we can hope to do is to infuſe *good principles*, whether theſe refer to *ſcience* or *morality*; and to leave their operation, and too generally the knowledge of their *motives*, to the events of future life; which, at the ſame time that they demonſtrate the ſoundneſs of thoſe principles themſelves, will evince the propriety of our ſilence with reſpect to their explanation. All that is neceſſary in the preſent period is to make our pupils thoroughly underſtand the meaning of the terms we employ;—an error will not then readily enſue.

'If there could be ſuch a thing as a ſolid number, there might be a ſurſolid number, and a thing might be more than ſolid, which is abſurd. People err much in ſuppoſing that a word is of little conſequence, if it is explained.' Part i. P. xii.

We are ready to confeſs that we think with the people who thus err. Primarily and abſtractedly conſidered there are many abſurdities in the terms of a variety of ſciences—but an intelligible explanation removes the abſurdity at once, and the whole is perſpicuous and clear. Mr. Frend would not with Newton and Clairant employ the terms negative numbers, ſurſolid, and biquadrate-ſquare; but we apprehend he would ſtill with both *meaſure* certain *parts* of ſpace by determining the diſtance from planet to planet:—yet ſpace is nevertheleſs *immeaſurable*, and conſiſts of *no parts* whatſoever. In like manner, metaphyſicians have been accuſtomed to *divide* eternity into diſtinct portions, and, with reſpect to the exiſtence of creation, to regard it as an eternitas à parte ante, and an eternitas à parte poſt. Such a regulation has its advantage, and, when the terms are duly explained, no confuſion can enſue; but will any one undertake to aſſert that eternity, ſtrictly and abſtractedly conſidered, can be divided in any manner, or conſiſt of *diſtinct portions?* When Fahrenheit conſtructed the ſcale of his thermometer in 1709, he fixed the greateſt degree of cold he was then acquainted with, which was that of the ſevereſt ſeaſon in Iceland, at an 0, or, as it is commonly called nothing; dividing it into ſix hundred degrees between this and its utmoſt elevation, to indicate the heat of boiling quickſilver. But we know of frigidities very many degrees indeed below the

firſt index of Fahrenheit, and we now univerſally denominate them, wherever they exiſt, ſo many degrees *below nothing*. In ſtrict application of language, this term, perhaps, may not be altogether correct, and our author may regard it, 'like a thing that is more than ſolid,' as 'abſurd.' But in reality there is no abſurdity whatever: for every one who employs the term underſtands its meaning perfectly. And we much queſtion whether any new treatiſe on pneumatics, like Mr. Frend's on algebra, that ſhould attempt to vary the general graduation, would add any thing of great moment to the *general ſcale of knowledge*. It might be more hypercritically correct, but it would not be better underſtood; and correctneſs is only of advantage as it adds to human underſtanding. But there is one alteration we may mention that has not even the advantage of increaſed preciſion to ſupport it, and that is the change of the term *co-efficient* to *co-part*. On what account Mr. Frend has quarrelled with this former term we know not; nor can we conceive of any one boaſt in favour of the latter, excepting that of mere novelty. As we have before obſerved, this elementary treatiſe is, nevertheleſs, a very ingenious and uſeful work, its progreſs is eaſy, and its problems are to the purpoſe. In the ſolution of equations of the third order we were prepared to point out an obvious error in p. 213; but on peruſing the preface to the ſecond part of theſe algebraic principles, p. xiv. we find we are anticipated by the author himſelf, who has detected the miſtake, and already, it ſhould ſeem, corrected it by a notice to the public through the medium of a reſpectable journal.

The ſecond part of the work before us is devoted to the doctrine of equations. They are divided into four claſſes, according to the number of their unknown terms: $x^{m+n}-ax^n=k$ being an equation of the ſecond; and $x^m-ax^n+bx^r=k$ of the third claſs. From the expulſion of negative quantities, which are denominated impoſſibilities, from the dignity of roots, the author advances one general rule, which applies to equations of every order; to wit, that none in any claſs can have more roots than it has unknown terms. The firſt claſs of equations are ſolved by extraction, by logarithms, by *approach*, uſually denominated, and with equal pertinency, by *approximation*; by an improved approach, an elegant and ingenious operation; by a general expreſſion, and by the mode of dividers. This firſt claſs occupies the principal part of the author's inquiry. In the forms of each claſs, however, the number of roots depends partly upon the co-efficients of the unknown terms, and partly upon the changes of the marks of addition or ſubtraction. In equations, whoſe unknown terms are ranged according to the order of their powers, there can be only one root, if there be

only one or no change of the marks; and in equations not ranged according to the order of their powers, there will be only one root, if there be a certain relation between the known term of the co-efficients of the unknown terms.

As a ſpecimen of the perſpicuity and accuracy of Mr. Frend's method, we ſhall ſelect from chap. iv, 'on Equations of the Third Claſs,' his 'new method of diſcovering the number of roots in a mode capable of having three roots.' The equation is $x^3 - a x^2 + b x = k$.

'x^3 may be taken, firſt leſs, then greater than $a x^2$.

'If x is taken leſs than a, then the unknown ſide is leſs than $b x$; and if x is made equal to a, then the unknown ſide is equal to $b x$. Conſequently, if $b a$ is equal to or leſs than k, no number leſs than a can make the unknown ſide equal to k; and ſince the unknown ſide always increaſes, from the time that x is equal to a, by adding to x, the equation can have only one root. Hence if b is equal to or leſs than $\frac{k}{a}$ the equation has only one root.

When x is taken leſs than a.

$$a x^2 - x^3 = b x - k.$$

When x is taken greater than a.

$$x^3 - a x^2 = k - b x.$$

'In the firſt caſe, namely, when $a x^2 - x^3$ is equal to $b x - k$, let $b x - k = m x$, m being a variable number and

$$a x^2 - x^3 = m x$$

or $$a x - x^2 = m.$$

'Now the ſide $a x - x^2$ firſt increaſes and then decreaſes; but m being equal to $b - \frac{k}{x}$ muſt as x increaſes always increaſe, $a x - x^2$ is greateſt when $x = \frac{a}{2}$. Conſequently, if in this caſe $a x - x^2$ is leſs than m, no number greater than $\frac{a}{2}$ can be ſubſtituted for x in this equation, and this equation admits only of one root. Hence the given equation $x^3 - a x^2 + b x = k$ cannot have more than two roots if $\frac{a^2}{4}$ is leſs than m. If $\frac{a^2}{4}$ is greater than m ſome number leſs than $\frac{a}{2}$ will make $a x - x^2$ equal to m, and then if the increaſe of $a x - x^2$ in that caſe is greater than m, ſome other greater number, but leſs than a, will make $a x - x^2$ equal again to m; and thus the equation $a x - x^2 = m$ will have two roots, and conſequently the given equation $x^3 - a x^2 + b x = k$ will have three roots. Now m begins to exiſt at a certain value of x, namely, when $x = \frac{k}{b}$ and its increaſe is greateſt at firſt, but grows

continually leſs and leſs. Alſo the increaſe of $a x - x^2$ is greateſt at firſt and conſtantly diminiſhes. Hence, m may become equal to $a x - x^2$ before x is equal to $\frac{a}{2}$, and then its increaſe may be leſs than that of $a x - x^2$, conſequently the equation will have two roots. But if the increaſe of m is greater than that of $a x - x^2$, when m firſt becomes equal to $a x - x^2$, and is alſo greater when $x = \frac{a}{2}$, then there cannot be another root to the equation $a x - x^2 = m$, and conſequently the given equation will have only two roots.' Part ii. P. 84.

Some eaſy and appoſite inſtances are here introduced, but theſe we muſt omit. The deduction is as follows;

'Hence, the equation has either three roots or only one. If there are three roots one muſt be greater than $\frac{6}{3}$ or 2; but 2 being tried is found to be greater than the root, conſequently the equation can have only one root unity.' Part ii. P. 87.

This ſecond part cloſes with a chapter devoted to general obſervations, which are uniformly clear, and will be frequently found uſeful: and ſaving the unneceſſary innovations which we have already pointed out, and a few ſevere and, in our opinion, unbecoming reflections upon Newton and Des Cartes, as to their '*jargon and unintelligible terms*,' we have not met at any time with a treatiſe upon the ſcience of algebra which has more pleaſed us, or which we can ſo readily recommend as a book of initiation to our academies and colleges.

Reflections on the preſent Condition of the Female Sex; with Suggeſtions for its Improvement. By Priſcilla Wakefield. 8*vo.* 3*s. ſewed.* Johnſon.

MRS. Wakefield is diſtinguiſhed among thoſe writers whoſe efforts have been directed to the proper cultivation of the youthful mind; and there is perhaps no topic on which ſuch a pen could be more uſefully employed than on the education and purſuits of women. She juſtly obſerves that,

'The intellectual faculties of the female mind have too long been confined by narrow and ill-directed modes of education, and thus have been concealed, not only from others, but from themſelves, the energies of which they are capable. The exigence of circumſtances in private life has called forth numberleſs examples of female prudence, magnanimity and fortitude, which demonſtrated no leſs a clearneſs of conception, than a warmth of feeling, reflect-

ing equal honour upon the heads, and upon the hearts of the ſex. Neither has hiſtory been ſilent in recording memorable inſtances of female capacity, in all the various branches of human excellence.' P. 5.

Some of the prominent errors in the education of females are thus noticed:

'An advantageous ſettlement in marriage is the univerſal prize, for which parents of all claſſes enter their daughters upon the liſts; and partiality or ſelf-complacency aſſures to every competitor the moſt flattering proſpect of ſucceſs. To this one point tends the principal part of female inſtruction; for the promotion of this deſign, their beſt years for improvement are ſacrificed to the attainment of attractive qualities, ſhewy ſuperficial accompliſhments, poliſhed manners, and in one word, the whole ſcience of pleaſing, which is cultivated with unceaſing aſſiduity, as an object of the moſt eſſential importance.

'The end is laudable, and deſerving of every effort that can be exerted to ſecure it; a happy marriage may be eſtimated among the rareſt felicities of human life; but it may be doubted, whether the means uſed to accompliſh it are adequate to the purpoſe; as the making a firſt impreſſion is by no means effectual to determine the preference of a wiſe man. It is not then ſufficient, that a girl be qualified to excite admiration; her own happineſs, and that of the man to whom ſhe devotes the remainder of her days, depend upon her poſſeſſion of thoſe virtues, which alone can preſerve laſting eſteem and confidence.

'The offices of a wife are very different from thoſe of the mere pageant of a ball-room; and as their nature is more exalted, the talents they require are of a more noble kind: ſomething far beyond the elegant trifler is wanted in a companion for life. A young woman is very ill-adapted to enter into the moſt ſolemn of ſocial contracts, who is not prepared, by her education, to become the participator of her huſband's cares, the conſoler of his ſorrows, his ſtimulator to every praiſe-worthy undertaking, his partner in the labours and viciſſitudes of life, the faithful and œconomical manager of his affairs, the judicious ſuperintendant of his family, the wiſe and affectionate mother of his children, the preſerver of his honour, his chief counſellor, and, to ſum up all, the choſen friend of his boſom. If a modern female education be not calculated to produce theſe effects, as few ſurely will judge it to be, who reflect upon its tendency, it is incompetent to that very purpoſe, which is confeſſedly its main object, and muſt therefore be deemed imperfect, and require reformation.

'Before the defects of the preſent ſyſtem are pointed out, let an enquiry alſo take place, whether it be better ſuited to qualify women for ſuſtaining the other characters which they may be deſtined to fulfil. Thoſe of widowhood and a ſingle life are the allotment of

many, and to support them with dignity requires peculiar force of mind. Adversity often places both sexes in situations wholly unexpected; against such transitions, the voice of wisdom admonishes each to be prepared, by early initiation into general principles suited to fortify the mind, to sustain the unavoidable strokes of fortune with firmness, and to exert the most prudent means to obviate their consequences; but the bias given to the female mind in the present system of education, encourages the keenest sensibility on the most trifling occasions, its chief design being to polish, rather than to strengthen.

'The regulation of the temper, is of all qualities the most useful to conduct us steadily through the vexatious circumstances, which attack, with undistinguishing annoyance, the prosperous and the unfortunate; and is supereminently necessary to women, whose peculiar office it is, to smooth the inconveniences of domestic life; though as a moral obligation, equally incumbent upon men. A well governed temper is the support of social enjoyment, and the bond of conjugal affection; deficient in this qualification, a mother is incapacitated from presiding over the education of her children, and a mistress unfitted to govern her servants. The self-command recommended, differs widely from that apathy of disposition, which is the effect of constitution; in order to ensure respect and love, it must possess an equability, which can only result from reflection and habitual culture. Such a subjection of the angry passions to reason and duty, accommodates itself to circumstances, and the disposition of others with whom we are connected; it gives a decided superiority in every contest, and is of inestimable value to the possessor, on every occasion of trial.' P. 29.

As a remedy for these mischievous tendencies, Mrs. Wakefield proposes several systems of education specifically adapted to the stations likely to be occupied by various classes of females; and also inculcates the necessity of multiplying their lucrative employments. Several ingenious occupations mentioned by Mrs. Wakefield, are, if we mistake not, already pursued with success by a considerable number of the sex; some others which are proposed are perhaps of a nature repugnant to that delicacy, which, in our opinion, ought to be preserved even among indigent women. Our author properly stigmatises the injustice and cruelty of excluding, from what is called genteel society, females honourably exercising their industry and talents for a subsistence. In this animadversion we heartily agree with her, and hope that it will not be unproductive of effect—the absurd and pernicious pride of which it complains is, we believe, chiefly to be found in opulent provincial towns.

From the gratification we have experienced in reading the production before us, we are induced to recommend its

peruſal. We are not fond of the amazonian innovations which pretend to conſult the dignity of the female ſex at the expence of its delicacy and ſoftneſs. There are phyſical diſtinctions and moral conſiderations peculiarly relative to women; and the ſyſtem-mongers, who confound or overlook them, deſerve perhaps ſomething more than contempt. A practical plan, not liable to any ſuch objection, for the amelioration of the female condition, is, on the contrary, entitled to praiſe, as a valuable addition to the ſcience of political economy—a reſpectable portion of this praiſe we do not heſitate to beſtow on Mrs. Wakefield's Reflections.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS....POLITICAL ECONOMY.

Anti-Revolutionary Thoughts of a Revolutionary Writer: from 'The Secret Hiſtory of the Revolution of France,' by Monſieur François Pagès. 8vo. 3s. Wright. 1800.

M. PAGÈS is better known in this country as a traveller and circumnavigator than as a politician, although at Paris he ſuſtains this latter character with no inconſiderable degree of credit. In the year 1797 he publiſhed a work in two volumes, 8vo. entitled, 'Hiſtoire Secrete de la Révolution Françaiſe,' which compriſed a range from the aſſembly of the Notables in 1789 to the revolution of the 14th Vendemiaire, (Nov. 1) 1796; and it is from this work the pamphlet before us is drawn up. Whatever merit may reſult from an ardent attachment to the preſent chancellor of the exchequer the tranſlator before us muſt be allowed to poſſeſs in a ſupereminent degree. To adopt his own language, 'the great obligations which England owes to Mr. Pitt are perpetually preſenting themſelves before him.'

'The time will come,' continues this zealous adherent, 'when in the cool and impartial page of hiſtory it will be ſeen with aſtoniſhment, that although in Europe the moſt complicated courſe of politics that ever embroiled the intereſts of nations, and at home the moſt ambitious and giddy faction that ever ſought to hamper the wheels of government, have reſpectively occurred under the adminiſtration of Mr. Pitt; yet his well directed exertions and ſteady zeal for the public welfare, have not only delivered this country from the very jaws of deſtruction, but have raiſed it to a ſtate of proſperity, wealth, and national conſequence, unprecedented in the Britiſh annals.' P. x.

By way of contraſt to this flaming encomium, we are imme-

diately afterwards preſented with a picture of the '*Corſican adventurer*,' who 'for two reaſons,' we are told,

'appears to form an enemy, if poſſible, more miſchievous to the welfare of France, and to the intereſts of Europe in general, than perhaps any of his jacobin fore-runners. Firſt; he unites in his nature all the ambition, cruelty, hypocriſy, which conſtituted the characteriſtic of the ſeveral tyrants who preceded him; with more craftineſs to conceal, and more boldneſs to diſcover their workings, as occaſion ſhould require. Secondly; every ſcattered particle of jacobin-ſpirit is now as it were concentrated; and the people, haraſſed with paſt ſufferings, and dreading to incur ſeverer ones by reſiſtance, are forced to ſtoop under the preſent yoke.' P. xiv.

The object of the writer, in ſelecting the paſſages before us, is 'to bring under the eye of the reader the teſtimony in *foro conſcientiæ* of M. Pagès, an ardent devotee to French revolutionary principles;—one who, while under the influence of rapturous enthuſiaſm, nay, in the middle of a climax of democratic rant, that turgid eloquence of the modern Pariſian ſchool, appears at times as if the ſpirit of truth inſpired him; and like Balaam, who bleſſed thoſe he came to curſe, reprobates his countrymen, whom it was his intention to approve.' P. vii.

In purſuing this object, the tranſlator appears totally to have outwitted himſelf. If he had meant to have held up the advocates of the preſent government of France in a light of deteſtation or deriſion, he ſhould have brought forwards a man, in poſſeſſion of preſent power, juſtifying all the cruelties, treacheries, and blaſphemies of the partiſans of former revolutionary governments. But the paſſages here tranſlated repreſent M. Pagès in a point of view ſtrictly amiable, condemning in terms as ſevere as our author himſelf could make uſe of, the doctrine of equality, and the error of advancing metaphyſical theorems in politics, which are inapplicable to the ſocial ſtate of man; as well as the ſophiſms, factions, inſurrections, and barbarities of the jacobins, and indeed of all the different revolutionary parties to the preſent period. We find him condemning the proceedings that anteceded the murder of the king with a freedom which we rejoice to ſee permitted in the republic, and with a warmth of indignation which could ſcarcely have been ſurpaſſed by Mallet du Pan himſelf. And finally, we behold him ſpeaking with high veneration of the political conſtitution of England, and pointing out the advantages which would have reſulted to France from an early adoption of a ſimilar ſyſtem. And yet this, gentle reader, is the man whom our author repreſents as ſubject to 'the ſtarts of fanaticiſm,' and curſed with 'the ſpirit of Balaam,' and whom he has ſelected as an inſtance of one of the chief monſters in the preſent government of France! We could not avoid ſmiling at the following conceit expreſſed in a note at p. 67, and we will cloſe our review by communicating this ſmile to our readers.

'If M. Pagès had looked into Milton's Paradiſe Loſt, he would have traced the pedigree of the jacobins, and found their lineal

deſcent from *Sin* and *Death*. Surely their great progenitor Satan had France in view, when, addreſſing Sin and Death, he ſays:

——— "There ſhall ye be fed and filled
Immeaſurably, all things ſhall be your prey."

Congreſs at Raſtadt.—Official Correſpondence between his Excellency Count Metternich, Miniſter Plenipotentiary of the Emperor, the Deputies of the Empire, and Citizens Treilhard, Bonnier, Roberjot, and Jean de Bry, Miniſters Plenipotentiary of the French Republic, aſſembled at Raſtadt for the Purpoſe of negotiating a Peace between thoſe Powers. Containing the Whole of the State Papers from the Commencement of the Negotiation, in December 1797, *to April* 1799, *the Period of its Diſſolution. From the Original Papers; with an Engliſh Tranſlation.* 8vo. 9*s. Boards.* Wright. 1800.

At a period when negotiations follow each other with ſuch rapidity, and ſo little is done by them, the correſpondence of a congreſs which, from the time occupied in minute and trifling affairs, ſeems never to have intended to enter ſeriouſly on the important point for which it was aſſembled, cannot be expected to excite a great degree of curioſity: yet to the ſtateſman, and to perſons employed in a diplomatic character, theſe papers are of high importance, and the collection of them is an uſeful ſervice to the public. In theſe papers are ſeen the difficulties attending the boundaries to be ſettled between the Imperial and French republics, the rights of the princes of Germany in both countries, and the eaſe by which negotiation is kept up when both parties do not come with a determination to haſten the great object of their meeting—the return of peace.

A Determination of the Average Depreſſion of the Price of Wheat in War below that of the preceding Peace; and of its Re-Advance in the following; according to its Yearly Rates from the Revolution to the End of the laſt Peace: with Remarks on their greater Variations in that entire Period. By J. Brand, CL. M. A. &c. &c. 8vo. 2*s.* Rivingtons. 1800.

The calamitous war in which we are engaged, and the miſery occaſioned in the country by the ſcarcity, are two events aſſociated together by one party, and ſeparated entirely by the other. The one allows that the ſcarcity has, in part, ariſen from the badneſs of the ſeaſons, but inſiſts upon the miſery being owing to the war; the other attributes the miſery entirely to the ſeaſons, and denies that the war has any tendency to raiſe the price of proviſions. In the latter claſs ranks the author of the work before us, who produces various tables and arithmetical calculations in ſupport of his favourite opinion, maintained on general grounds, that war depreſſes, and never raiſes, the price of human ſuſtenance. In thus treating the queſtion, he ſeems not to have taken a ſufficiently extenſive view of his ſubject; for the nature of every war muſt be contemplated before we determine on its effects as to this point. If an enemy overrun a country and beſiege the capital, the productive powers of that country being diminiſhed, and the introduction of food being rendered impracticable or attended with exceſſive difficulties, the inhabitants muſt be put to great ſtraights, or expoſed, as in the famous caſe of the ſiege of Jeruſalem, to all the

horrors of famine. On the other hand, one country may invade another, ſubſiſt its troops on the enemy's quarters, and bring back plunder and proviſions to itſelf: in which caſe, ſince many of the inhabitants ceaſed to conſume the produce of the country, and proviſion was alſo imported, the war will be the cauſe of an additional cheapneſs of proviſions. Thus, ſince war may make things either cheap or dear, *according to its exiſting circumſtances*, we can by no means accede to the author's opinion, that it has an univerſal tendency to depreſs the price of proviſions. But, to prove the poſition, a reference is made to the ſtate of proviſions in this country ſince the Revolution, taking their average during the terms of war and peace in which it has been alternately engaged. And here, fortunately for this iſland, theſe tables are very inconcluſive data; the miſeries of war have ſeldom been deeply felt in antecedent hoſtilities; and till we unluckily entered into the preſent fatal war, it was very difficult, if not impoſſible, to aſcertain the effect of prior conteſts on the ſtate of the country. Antecedently hereto the iſland was riſing to its higheſt pitch of proſperity, and had ſo nearly attained it, that the wars in which we were engaged could not materially affect it. Whence it ſhould happen that ſo much more evil ſhould be generally attributed to the preſent than any preceding war is a very curious queſtion, and the preſent writer might have thrown ſome light upon it when he was obſerving, that "the effects of war in the corn-market will be as our exertions; and, when thoſe are ſmall, the former will not be diſcernible in the prices, being entirely concealed by the much greater effect of the variation of the products of ſeaſons."

This remark ſuperſedes the neceſſity of a very rigid examination of the tables, and of ſome ingenious methods of interpolation, uſeful to the arithmetician, and deſerving his minute attention. From his next ſubject, however, the increaſe of the circulating medium called gold, owing to ſome regulations in Spaniſh America, we have derived much uſeful information as to the fact itſelf, and its effect on the object of our author's inquiry; for he obſerves juſtly here, "that, if the quantity of commodities to be purchaſed by it continue fixed on increaſe in a leſs proportion than coin, the real value for which this univerſal equivalent will exchange will perpetually diminiſh." Now the two caſes have taken place ſo obviouſly in this war, different from all preceding wars, that we cannot refrain from expreſſing our aſtoniſhment at the author's carrying us from Spain to Mexico, from Mexico to Portugal, from Portugal to the Brazils, giving us calculation upon calculation, long tables and difficult interpolations, charges of ſedition and inſinuations of treaſon, when he might have rendered his ſubject ſhort and eaſy to all his readers. The exertions of this war have been far greater than thoſe of any other period, according to himſelf; therefore their effects muſt be more diſcernible in the prices of the corn-market; and theſe effects have been rendered ſtill more obvious by the unfavourableneſs of the ſeaſons. Again, from the decreaſe of proviſions, and the increaſe of the circulating medium of paper, ſtanding in the place of gold, beyond all bounds of conjecture, it naturally follows, from the author's own data, that more of this circulating medium muſt be given

for proviſions; or, in other words, that the price of proviſions muſt be prodigiouſly raiſed: nor is there a proſpect of their falling from their preſent price, ſince, if the quantity of proviſions ſhould increaſe, the quantity of paper money will probably increaſe in a ſtill greater proportion.

Hence, though we cannot allow any ſtreſs to be laid on the inferences which this writer endeavours to draw from his tables, we give him great credit for his reſearches. He has advanced weapons which may be uſed on either ſide of the queſtion; and if his arguments be too obſcure for the generality of readers, they may afford ſome entertainment to political arithmeticians.

Dearneſs not Scarcity; its Cauſe and Remedy. By a Commercial Man. Humbly offered to the Conſideration of his Majeſty's Miniſters. 4*to.* No Publiſher's Name. 1800.

This is an excellent paper, and we wiſh the writer would extend his ideas upon the ſubject. Adam Smith, whoſe ample knowledge of trade and political economy cannot be comprehended by one of a narrow mind, or confined to the routine of a technical profeſſion, receives due encomium in this work, in which it is aſſerted, that the cauſe of the preſent ſcarcity is "not underſtood either at court or in the ſenate; ſtill leſs by profeſſional men, or by men of letters; little underſtood by the middling claſſes, and not at all by the lower: but it is known to the wholeſale dealer, to the merchant, to the negotiator of foreign exchanges, to town and country banks; and it is known, if it dare be reflected upon, at the Bank of England." In few words, the cauſe appears to us to exiſt in a well-applied term with which this pamphlet concludes—"the moonſhine of paper currency."

Thoughts on the Dearneſs of Proviſions, and the moſt certain Method to reduce the preſent High Price of Wheat. Addreſſed to the principal Inhabitants of Great Britain. 8*vo.* 6*d.* Robinſons. 1800.

The country is called on to petition the king to convene his parliament; then the legiſlature is to make a law of a very ſimple nature, merely to oblige every corn-holder to give in an accurate account of the quantity of corn in his poſſeſſion; the bakers to declare the quantity of bread baked within a certain time; and the number of the inhabitants in the whole kingdom is to be taken. We preſume that the writer never accurately conſidered the nature of a wheat-hovel or ſtack, or he would not talk of an accurate account of corn in the poſſeſſion of the farmer; and he has not conſidered the time it will take to count off a million, and the nature of pariſh returns, or he would not talk of the number of inhabitants being taken with very little trouble. But we will not dwell any longer on this egregious trifling.

Moderation is Salvation; addreſſed to the People of England at the preſent Scarcity. By a Plain Man. 8*vo.* Sewell. 1800.

A well meant patriotic attempt to encourage people to keep up their ſpirits, and try the effects of frugality.

'I live,' ſays the writer 'in a ſtreet which contains ſixty houſes, or thereabouts. By the more frequent uſe of vegetables,

and particularly of potatoes, I have been able to reduce my always inconsiderable consumption of bread one quartern loaf and a half every week. Permit me to calculate (and thereby save you the trouble) how much that weekly reduction amounts to in a year: I beg to state, that it saves four thousand six hundred and eighty quartern loaves annually in every street consisting of sixty houses.' P. 4.

We wish that the writer had completed his account by stating the weekly expense of his vegetables; but at any rate we wish the rich to attend to this point; for if the mistress of the house will order, and enforce the order, that only such a quantity of bread shall be allowed that is requisite for the family, the saving to the public will be immense. We like our writer's plain language, and have been entertained with his proverbs: "Moderation is salvation;"—"Profusion may produce confusion."

Effectual Means of providing, according to the Exigencies of the Evil, against the Distress apprehended from the Scarcity and High Prices of different Articles of Food. By George Edwards, Esq. 8vo 1s. Johnson. 1800.

Substitutes for grain—importation—compulsory means for procuring provisions—restoration of peace;—these are the chief means, several of which cannot be denied to have a considerable effect. The mean of compulsion, however, would fail of its end, and is both ridiculous and unjust. The writer claims the honour "of being the sole author of the present new and solid system of finance, that of raising the supplies within the year, and the Income-Tax." We cannot imagine that there is a single person in the kingdom who, whether the claim be well or ill founded, would be his competitor for the honour to which he aspires.

A Word on the Times, to those who buy: also, Five Minutes' Advice before going to Market, to those who sell. By Rowland Hunt, Esq. 8vo. 4d. Longman *and* Rees. 1800.

Very judicious remarks—very fit for the instruction of manufacturers whose bread must be procured for them from the neighbouring counties.

Strictures on the True Cause of the present alarming Scarcity of Grain and other Provisions; and a Plan for permanent Relief: humbly submitted to Public Consideration, By Alexander Annesley. With an Historical Deduction of the Prices of Provisions. Interspersed with various Matters connected with the Commerce and Navigation of Great Britain. Together with a Chronological Account of the several Statutes, Proclamations, and Parliamentary Regulations, for controuling the Markets, and preventing Monopoly, Engrossing, &c. from the Norman Conquest to the present Æra. 8vo. 2s. Murray *and* Highley. 1800.

Mark-lane—Bear-key—millers and meal-men—bakers and farmers—are playing their tricks behind the curtain! Middle men are to be abolished! All grain to be subjected to the excise-laws! Public granaries to be established! More corn-mills to be erected,

to be worked by wind, water, or ſteam!——Such is the farago of this book. Yet we can commend his propoſal for the encouragement of our fiſheries, which can never ſucceed under the preſent ſalt-duties: and his table of the dearneſs of proviſions in various years ſince the Conqueſt. We live, however, in a very different ſtate from our remote anceſtors; and if we will have good houſes, good roads, and greater comforts, we muſt expect that there will be a ſet-off againſt them in the price of poultry.

Conſiderations on the preſent High Price of Corn; with a Propoſition for the effectual Regulation of the Prices of all the Requiſites of Life. Addreſſed to every Claſs of Society. By Homo. 8vo. 1s. Scatcherd. 1800.

This gentleman, who "expoſes himſelf to our view under a maſk," wiſhes the legiſlature to fix a maximum on corn: in other words, he wiſhes every man who can produce a good ſample of corn to make it a bad one before it is exhibited for ſale.

RELIGION.

A Summary of the principal Evidences for the Truth and Divine Origin of the Chriſtian Revelation. Deſigned chiefly for the Uſe of Young Perſons; more particularly of thoſe who have lately been confirmed in the Dioceſe of London. By Beilby, Lord Biſhop of London. 12mo. 3s. *ſewed.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

At a time when infidelity is inceſſantly endeavouring to undermine the holy truths of our religion, it is with pleaſure we ſee their efforts counteracted by the vigilance of thoſe whoſe eminence in the church is adorned and honoured by an extenſive learning, ſuperior taſte, and indiſputable piety. If the infidel diſſeminate his poiſon in the cottage, the antidote is here at hand, for the diſtinguiſhed talents of the biſhop of London humble themſelves to the level of the loweſt capacities. But while we ſay this, while we give every degree of praiſe to the clearneſs by which this work is diſtinguiſhed, and rendered ſuitable to thoſe younger and leſs experienced perſons for whom it is principally deſigned, let it not be ſuppoſed that his lordſhip's ſuggeſtions may not be peruſed by other ranks and claſſes of mankind with great advantage. We beg to be permitted to propoſe a ſlight change in the following paſſage:

'I have only to add, that although this little treatiſe is deſigned principally for the inſtruction of youth, yet conſidered as a kind of recapitulation of the evidences of Chriſtianity, it may be found of ſome uſe to perſons of a more mature age, by refreſhing their memories, and bringing back to their recollection thoſe proofs of their religion, which they have formerly read in larger and more elaborate works, and which they will here ſee brought together into one point of view.' P. viii.

In this paſſage, inſtead of "*ſome uſe*," we would read "*the greateſt uſe*;" and to the ſtudents in the univerſity, and the younger clergy, the continued peruſal of this work cannot fail of being highly beneficial.

The evidence is preſented in a ſeries of propoſitions, which give

the mind an opportunity of weighing well each ſeparate point in the controverſy between faith and infidelity; and the ſumming of them up, which is done in a very maſterly manner, juſtifies the concluſion of the author, 'that a religion ſupported by ſuch an extraordinary accumulation of evidence, muſt be true; and that all men who pretend to be guided by argument and by proof, are bound by the moſt ſacred obligations to receive the religion of Chriſt as a real revelation from God.'

The ſtyle of the writer is ſo well known, that we might here conclude the review of this article without anticipating the pleaſure and inſtruction to be derived from the peruſal of the work itſelf: yet we cannot deny ourſelves the ſatisfaction of inſerting two extracts, which ſo forcibly delineate the character of our Saviour and his apoſtles.

'Whoever conſiders with attention the character of our bleſſed Lord, as it may be collected from the various incidents and actions of his life (for there are no laboured deſcriptions of it, no encomiums upon it, by his own diſciples) will ſoon diſcover that it was, in every reſpect, the moſt perfect that ever was made known to mankind. If we only ſay of him what even Pilate ſaid of him, and what his bittereſt enemies cannot and do not deny, *that we can find no fault in him,* and that the whole tenor of his life was entirely blameleſs throughout, this is more than can be ſaid of any other perſon that ever came into the world. But this is going a very little way indeed in the excellence of his character. He was not only free from every failing, but poſſeſſed and practiſed every imaginable virtue. Towards his heavenly father he expreſſed the moſt ardent love, the moſt fervent yet rational devotion, and diſplayed in his whole conduct the moſt abſolute reſignation to his will and obedience to his commands. His manners were gentle, mild, condeſcending, and gracious: his heart overflowed with kindneſs, compaſſion, and tenderneſs to the whole human race. The great employment of his life was to do good to the bodies and ſouls of men. In this all his thoughts and all his time were conſtantly and almoſt inceſſantly occupied. He went about diſpenſing his bleſſings to all around him in a thouſand different ways; healing diſeaſes, relieving infirmities, correcting errors, removing prejudices, promoting piety, juſtice, charity, peace, harmony, among men, and crowding into the narrow compaſs of his miniſtry more acts of mercy and compaſſion than the longeſt life of the moſt benevolent man upon earth ever yet produced. Over his own paſſions he had obtained the moſt complete command; and though his patience was continually put to the ſevereſt trials, yet he was never once overcome, never once betrayed into any intemperance or exceſs in word or deed, "never once ſpake unadviſedly with his lips." He endured the cruelleſt inſults from his enemies with the utmoſt compoſure, meekneſs, patience, and reſignation; diſplayed the moſt aſtoniſhing fortitude under a moſt painful and ignominious death; and, to crown all, in the very midſt of his torments on the croſs, implored forgiveneſs for his murderers in that divinely charitable prayer, "Father, forgive them, for they know not what they do."

'Nor was his wiſdom inferior to his virtues. The doctrines he taught were the moſt ſublime and the moſt important that were ever before delivered to mankind, and every way worthy of that God, from whom he profeſſed to derive them, and whoſe ſon he declared himſelf to be.' P. 43.

'If now we aſk, (ſays the pious author under the next propoſition) as it is very natural to aſk, who that extraordinary perſon could be, that was the author of ſuch uncommonly excellent morality as this? the anſwer is, that he was, to all outward appearance, the reputed ſon of a carpenter, living with his father and mother in a remote and obſcure corner of the world, till the time that he aſſumed his public character. "Whence, then, had this man theſe things, and what wiſdom is this that was given unto him?" He had evidently none of the uſual means or opportunities of cultivating his underſtanding or improving his mind. He was born in a low and indigent condition, without education, without learning, without any ancient ſtores, from whence to draw his wiſdom and his morality, that were at all likely to fall into his hands. You may, perhaps, in ſome of the Greek or Roman writers, pick out a few of his precepts, or ſomething like them. But what does this avail? Thoſe writers he had never read. He had never ſtudied at Athens or at Rome; he had no knowledge of orators or philoſophers. He underſtood, probably, no language but his own, and had nothing to give him juſter notions of virtue and religion than the reſt of his countrymen and perſons in his humble rank of life uſually had. His fellow-labourers in this undertaking, the perſons who aſſiſted him during his life, and into whoſe hands his religion came after his death, were a few fiſhermen on the Lake of Tiberias, as unlearned and uneducated, and, for the purpoſe of framing rules of morality, as unpromiſing as himſelf. Is it poſſible, then, that ſuch men as theſe could, without any aſſiſtance whatever, produce ſuch perfect and incomparable rules of life as thoſe of the Goſpel; ſo greatly ſuperior in purity, ſolidity, perſpicuity, and univerſal uſefulneſs, to all the moral leſſons of all the philoſophers upon earth put together? Every man of common ſenſe muſt ſee that this is abſolutely impoſſible, and that there is no other conceivable way of accounting for this, than by admitting what theſe perſons conſtantly affirmed, that their doctrines and their precepts came from the fountain of all perfection, that is from God himſelf.' P. 56.

The Anti-Calviniſt; or Two Plain Diſcourſes on Redemption and Faith. By Robert Fellowes, A. B. Oxon. &c. 12mo. 6d. White. 1800.

The exceſſes into which ſome of the party now called Evangelical or Methodiſtical have run, and the increaſe daily taking place in the numbers of that ſect, have naturally excited an alarm in the church, and the clergy are growing more earneſt in their endeavours to recal their ſcattered flocks, and to point out to them, in glowing colours, the errors by which they have been deluded. Such a conduct is highly praiſe-worthy; but in the pur-

ſuit of error there is a danger of paſſing the limits preſcribed by authority; and from a conviction of the pernicious conſequences of ſome methodiſtical tenets, when carried into an extreme, the mind may receive ſuch a bias, as, without intention, and indeed imperceptibly, may carry it into the contrary exceſs. The pleaſure we have received from the very inſtructive writings of this author has perhaps made us more alive to any deviation on his part from the rules laid down by the church; and we muſt confeſs that, though we approve highly of many portions of this diſcourſe, in which the overſtrained tenets of the evangelical clergy are properly corrected, we feel ourſelves at a loſs to reconcile other parts with the doctrine contained in the thirty-nine articles. We would in particular point out to the writer the following paſſage:

'Though Chriſt both practiſed, taught and enjoined the pureſt morality, and though we are deſired to "be holy, as he which hath called us is holy," (1 Pet. c. i, v. xv,) yet there are many perſons, either through "pleaſure in unrighteouſneſs," 2 Theſſ. c. ii, v. xii, or wrought on by "ſtrong delufion, that they ſhould believe a lie," 2 Theſſ. c. ii, v. ii, who pretend that the ſin of Adam hath ſo thoroughly tainted and ſo radically depraved human nature, that man is from his birth addicted to wickedneſs, and incapable of goodneſs.—But the Scriptures, when they are truly expounded, never teach, and our Saviour himſelf, in all his diſcourſes, never publiſhed this loathſome and pernicious doctrine. The ſin of Adam did not vitiate the nature of mankind. The puniſhment inflicted on Adam for his tranſgreſſion was death and temporal miſery. His poſterity therefore are born to mortality and to ſuffering; but they are not born either in guilt or in wickedneſs. They are not born diſpoſed to evil and indiſpoſed to good.' P. 18.

Indeed the title of theſe diſcourſes, 'The Anti-Calviniſt,' is liable to ſome objection; for, if the doctrine of the articles on the ſubjects of redemption and faith be clearly Calviniſtical, it little becomes a clergyman of the church to ſtyle himſelf, on theſe points, an Anti-Calviniſt; or if the tenets of Calvin be carried too far by the evangelical clergy, it would ſtill have been better to have aſſumed the title of Anti-methodiſt rather than the preſent. The controverſy is certainly of great importance, and the difference between the two parties of a nature not eaſily to be reconciled. Our writer muſt entertain very low ideas of our Saviour's miſſion, when he can ſay: 'The Goſpel of Chriſt is from beginning to end nothing more than a rule of life, teaching us how to live ſo as to pleaſe God and to be worthy of immortality, and at the ſame time denouncing vengeance againſt the tranſgreſſor.' The Goſpel of Chriſt means the good tidings of Chriſt, the good news or meſſage of the ſalvation of mankind, peace on earth, and good will towards men; and theſe good tidings were followed by a rule of life the wiſeſt and the beſt ever deviſed for the happineſs of the human race. On the different notions entertained concerning the Goſpel, much of the preſent controverſy hinges, the evangelical clergyman regarding the good tidings as dependent

on the nature of the faith which he imagines to be inculcated, and which he cordially endeavours to diſſeminate; while too many of the oppoſite deſcription of the clergy neglect the foundation of faith, and are intent only on teaching a rule of life which is equally compatible with the notions of a deiſtical philoſophy.

An Argument concerning the Chriſtian Religion, drawn from the Character of the Founders. Tranſlated from the French of J. Vernet. 8vo. Robinſons. 1800.

This argument we recommend to the conſideration of both the Deiſt and the Chriſtian: to the former, that he may weigh duly and juſtly, in his own mind, the reaſons that have led him to reject Chriſtianity; the latter, that he may with greater pleaſure reflect on the wiſdom of God, ſhown in the characters of thoſe by whom the good tidings of ſalvation were communicated to a loſt and benighted world. It is drawn up with much method, clearneſs, preciſion, and piety. We find ſcarcely any reaſon to differ in any point from our author, and even the paſſage which the tranſlator would modify meets with our heartfelt approbation. We ſhall tranſcribe the whole paragraph.

'I acknowledge, that in the epiſtles, as in all ſuch writings, we find paſſages which want explanations, and require at leaſt that we ſhould know on what occaſion, and on what ſubject, theſe letters have been written. Every language and every age having its own taſte and ſtyle; and every author making alluſions to the events, the opinions, and the cuſtoms of his time and his country; in order to underſtand ancient writers, we require to have hiſtorical remarks, which may inform us of theſe cuſtoms and events; together with ſuch critical notes, as may ſupply what is omitted, and enable us better to underſtand the object and connexion of the diſcourſe. With ſuch aſſiſtance, we do not find more difficulty in the letters of the apoſtles, than in every other writing of the ſame ſort. The ſtyle is even more clear than that of many works in high eſtimation; and the more we ſtudy them, we certainly find more of their ſolidity and connexion. Very different from thoſe fanatical writings which have nothing but the falſe glare of pompous diſorder: very different even from a number of works, too much infected with a falſe philoſophy or a puerile rhetoric.—It is a fact which many perſons have undoubtedly experienced, that after having read many books upon the ſubject of religion, both ancient and modern, and heard diſcourſes of every kind, they return at length with ſingular pleaſure to the apoſtolic writings, as the beſt beyond compariſon both in ſenſe and taſte.' P. 51.

To the laſt period the tranſlator offers ſome objections in a note, and ſtrengthens his opinion by quotations from Dr. Campbell, Tucker, and Amner, which would exhibit St. John's Goſpel as the work of an illiterate Jew, St. Paul as dealing in farfetched extravagant figures, and the writers of the New Teſtament in general, as not quite competent judges in the more minute and nicer queſtions of theology. The fault appears to us to

lie in the readers of the Holy Scriptures, not in those who wrote them; and the difficulties found in some parts of the epistles are to be compared with those which we discover in writings of the same date and nature, before we pretend to talk of the incompetency and ignorance of an apostle or evangelist. This whole note we could wish to see expunged in the next edition of this valuable and useful work. That our readers may judge of its style and manner, we present to them the important remarks with which it concludes.

'We shall perceive better the force of these proofs, if we recollect what has been before said, that there are rules in the moral order of things, to judge of men by their conduct, as there are, in the natural order of things, to judge of causes by their effects. Humanity has, so to speak, her constant and uniform course, in consequence of which, we never see men acting against their natural constitution, nor against all their interests present and future. We do not see parents, unless they be out of their senses, endeavouring to hurt their children. We do not see men so wicked or so foolish, as to be bent on doing wrong, without deriving either pleasure or profit from it. We do not see, that a man without virtue, either comprehends, or desires to support to the end, a disinterested and virtuous part; nor an epicurean expose himself cheerfully to all kinds of difficulty. Experience has enabled us to see, that every one follows his inclinations and his principles, and that it is uncommon for a man to belie himself for any length of time. Hence it is, that if we hear of any disorderly conduct, nobody thinks of attributing it to a grave and sensible man; the suspicion does not fall on any person who till then has lived without reproach. Hence it happens too, that in courts of justice we reckon much on what a witness deposes against his own interest; and advocates do not fail to dwell on the improbability that a man has, or has not done such a thing, his character and the circumstances he is in, considered. This reasoning is founded on certain rules which good sense and constant experience dictate, in order to judge of human actions: and hence arises what is called moral certainty, upon which the whole order of civil life depends. In what a situation should we be, if we could not reckon upon men's acting according to their natural temper, according to their principles, or according to their interest; in a word, that they acted from some reason or motive, by which humanity may be taken hold of.—There are indeed moral exceptions, but which we exclude, as we do physical exceptions,

'Now it is to admit and not to exclude these exceptions, if we say, as unbelievers are forced to do in this case,

1st.—That certain poor mechanics of Judea, without education and without talents, have formed of themselves the great and daring project of changing the religions universally received.

'2d.—That these men, intending to substitute to judaism and paganism, another plan of religion; have conceived a system the most sublime,—a mode of worship the purest,—a religion the most detached from sense, and from any indulgence of the passions—and which best unites, all the great principles of theology, with those of morals and of civil government.

'3d.—That these same men, who gave such excellent lessons on piety, justice, temperance, rectitude, and charity, and who to these lessons have in fact added a striking example of virtuous conduct, were however nothing but cheats, who have upheld all their doctrine by falsehood and blasphemy; making no scruple to offend God, to deceive man, and to precipitate their followers into a gulf of miseries.

'4th.—That these same men, who talk and write so sensibly, have been frantic enough to sacrifice themselves in cold blood, and with singular perseverance, to the strange madness of maintaining a story, of which they knew the falsehood, and from which they derived neither honour nor advantage.

'And lastly, if we are to take them for madmen and visionaries, we must confess,—that to these madmen and visionaries the world is indebted for a work the most difficult, and for the noblest change that ever took place in human affairs;—we must confess, that it is a company of wrong-headed men, who have diffused over the world the best lights it ever had, upon the nature of God,—upon divine worship,—upon morals,—and upon the final destination of man.

'Such are the tenets which unbelievers are forced to advance and maintain, in order to elude the proofs of the Christian religion. What greater credulity can there be, than thus to admit paradoxes, contrary to every thing we know of man, and of his nature, and contrary to all the examples with which we are furnished from history.'

The Liturgy of the Church of England explained and vindicated, so as to appear in perfect Harmony with the Scriptures, and very far distant from the Arminian System; now first printed from the Manuscript of Augustus Toplady, A.B. late Vicar of Broad Hembury, Devon. By the Editor of his Works. To which is prefixed, an Essay on the Character and Writings of the Author. 8vo. 1s. Rowe. 1800.

The Calvinism of the liturgy of the church is maintained with great strength of argument; and which would not have been impaired, if less contempt of the adversary had been blended with it. Whatever proofs the Arminians may conceive themselves to possess on the subjects of free will and predestination, they will find it difficult to enlist the church of England on their side; and the vindication of the church, in this pamphlet, deserves their examination and study.

Principles of Christianity; as professed by the established Church. For the Use of Schools. By the Rev. Samuel Seyer, M.A. &c. 12mo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1800.

In a very small compass are given the essential points of religion, as established by the church of England, with much useful information on the nature of the Scriptures. The chapters are short, and at the end of each is a series of questions, to bring the subject to the recollection of the reader. This mode of instruction is far superior to that by the common catechism, as it impels the learner to a degree of activity, and makes him read with attention. The

author has very judiciously also recommended to teachers a variation of the words in which the questions are put, and has given ample references to texts of Scripture, by which every point is confirmed. The searching for these texts will be a useful exercise for young people; and parents and instructors will find great advantage in employing each chapter as a weekly lesson for the youth under their care, and in dedicating a part of every Sunday to the examination of such lessons, according to the plan of the questions here proposed. The young will thus learn with alacrity, and the aged will feel a high satisfaction in bringing weekly to their minds the most important topics and duties of religion.

A Brief Explanation of the Assembly's Catechism, by the late Rev. John Brown, of Haddington; recommended by Dr. Fisher, of Glasgow. Revised and improved, with some Account of the Rise, Progress, and good Effects of Sabbath Evening Schools, in Scotland and England; and a Plan of the Mode of Instruction adopted in them. By W. Moseley. 12*mo.* 4*d.* Williams. 1800.

A tedious collection of questions on the Assembly's Catechism, which, from the preface, we presume will be the torture of many a child in the north of this island. We are advocates for the instruction of all ranks of people in religious truths, and well regulated Sunday Schools meet with our highest approbation; but the following anecdotes, evidently related with an air of triumph, affected us with very painful sensations.

'A minister from England, being at Dundee last summer, was conducted one evening to a room where sixteen or eighteen boys met for religious exercises, who had been converted in these seminaries. At the close he said, "My lads, I understand it is usual for one of you to conclude in prayer, and I wish one of you to do it." A little boy about ten years old rose up, and with much simplicity said, "Sir, if you please, I will." He went to prayer, and continued for about ten minutes, expressing himself in the most sensible, serious, and spiritual manner. When he closed, the minister said to him, "My lad, do you not feel a little shame in going to prayer before a minister?"—"Shame! sir (replied the boy), how can I be ashamed when I recollect these words of Christ:—"He that is ashamed of me and my words, of him will I be ashamed before my Father and his holy angels?" P. ii.

We are much afraid that these pert praying boys of ten years old will repeat like a parrot all the answers in this catechism, and by the time they are twenty forget both preaching and praying altogether.

A Third Letter; on the Itinerancy and Non-conformity of the Vicar of Charles, Plymouth; addressed to Henry Reginald, Lord Bishop of Exeter. To which is added, a Sermon, on the Mode of Preaching that becomes a Clergyman. By the Rev. R. Polwhele. 8*vo.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

If we are to believe this writer, his antagonist, a reverend dignitary in the same diocese, is an enthusiast and a fanatic, though at the same time "the most popular preacher in the diocese;" a

hypocrite, guilty of treachery, which however he exceeds in effrontery; and who has "relinquiſhed all pretenſions to the character of a gentleman." He is an unfair diſputant—a Proteus; one "whom gentlemen muſt deſpiſe and ſhun; who acts in the double character of a churchman and diſſenter, an itinerant and a nonconformiſt."—Surely the writer has forgotten the evangelical precept, to expoſtulate with his brother in private, and then, in failure of ſucceſs, to apply to the church. This mode of appeal to the public is injurious to the intereſt of the church. If his antagoniſt be the character he is here repreſented, which we ſee no grounds for ſuppoſing, it became the writer to make a regular complaint to his biſhop, and this ſcandal to the church would then undoubtedly have been removed by the eccleſiaſtical court. We cannot regard this letter to the biſhop of Exeter as a complaint in proper form, and we hope and truſt that we ſhall hear no more of the controverſy. It is unſeemly, that two reſpectable clergymen ſhould hold out ſuch a ſpectacle to the laity, or ſo far deviate from their own proper character.

The Charge of Samuel Lord Biſhop of Rocheſter to the Clergy of his Dioceſe, delivered at his ſecond general Viſitation in the Year 1800. *Publiſhed at the Requeſt of the Clergy.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robſon. 1800.

This is the moſt fulminating charge perhaps that has iſſued from the epiſcopal throne ſince the time of Athanaſius. The chief ſubjects of its denunciation are atheiſts, Socinians, methodiſts, and non-reſident clergy. In ſpeaking of atheiſts his lordſhip uſes great plainneſs of ſpeech: they are "miſcreants; enemies to all moral order; crafty villains; ſceptered pedants, allured by the paltry bribe of literary fame, to league with traitors for the ſubverſion of the thrones on which they ſat; children of hell." "A conſpiracy was entered into by a knot of theſe atheiſts, to ſubvert all belief in Chriſtianity;" and he "who can withhold his belief to the maſs of authentic documents of this conſpiracy, in the conſentient narratives of Barruel and Robiſon, when he has peruſed their memoirs with attention, I ſcruple not to pronounce, that if his judgment is not biaſſed by ſtrange partialities, he is one who knows not how to appreciate the value and amount of hiſtorical evidence." With reſpect to theſe *concurrent* teſtimonies we ſhall only obſerve, that they derived their materials from the ſame ſource, the book-ſtalls of Germany, which were weighed down with ſimilar traſh between the years 1760 and 1790; and the *ipſe dixit* of his lordſhip cannot make us alter an opinion formed on a more extenſive knowledge of the ſubject, and better opportunities of inveſtigating it, before the minds of men had been ruffled by the terrible cataſtrophes of the French revolution.

The Socinians have a ſmaller ſhare of his lordſhip's notice. "The laity of this country, the great majority I mean, have no better reliſh for the Socinian hereſy than for plain atheiſm. They think much alike of him who openly diſowns the Son of God [his lordſhip was probably here hurried a little, for the Socinians do not diſown the Son of God], and of him who denies the Father: inſomuch, that the advocates of that blaſphemy have preached

themſelves out of all credit with the people. The patriarch of the ſect is fled, and the orators and oracles of Birmingham and Eſſex-ſtreet are dumb; or if they ſpeak, ſpeak only to be diſregarded."

The great increaſe of late of the methodiſts is aſcribed to the continued operations of the atheiſtical enemy. "It is very remarkable (ſays the ſpeaker), that theſe new congregations of nondeſcripts have been moſtly formed ſince the jacobins have been laid under the reſtraint of thoſe two moſt ſalutary ſtatutes, commonly known by the names of the Sedition and the Treaſon Bill:—a circumſtance which gives much ground for ſuſpicion that ſedition and atheiſm are the real objects of theſe inſtitutions, rather than religion." This ſuſpicion is, in another part of the diſcourſe, raiſed into a certainty. His lordſhip repeats what he had ſaid in parliament, and adds a ſtrong aſſeveration of his own. "I ſaid that ſchools of jacobinical religion and jacobinical politics, that is to ſay, ſchools of atheiſm and diſloyalty, abound in this country; ſchools in the ſhape and diſguiſe of charity-ſchools and ſunday-ſchools, in which the minds of the children of the very loweſt orders are enlightened; that is to ſay, taught to deſpiſe religion and the laws and all ſubordination. This I know to be the fact." After ſuch an aſſeveration as this, he "who knows not how to appreciate the value and amount of hiſtorical evidence" will certainly be very much biaſſed; yet, recollecting the inſinuations thrown out againſt the early Chriſtians for their atheiſm, profligacy, ſeditious temper, and licentiouſneſs, we cannot thus join in the condemnation of any ſect of Chriſtians, unleſs ſome facts are really ſubſtantiated; and the author of this diſcourſe may juſtly be called upon, by the methodiſts, to bring proofs of his allegations.

The exhortations to the clergy, to preach up with greater zeal the doctrines of the articles, meet with our unqualified approbation; but we were ſurpriſed at the mode of conſidering the difference in the interpretation of thoſe articles. "I know not what hinders but that the higheſt ſupralapſarian Calviniſt may be as good a churchman as an Arminian." The great difficulty ſeems to be to find out how an Arminian can be at all a member of the church.

Epiſcopal charges generally conclude with an apoſtolical benediction. How the clergy felt at the parting words of their prelate we leave our readers to imagine. "If the high inexpediency of non-reſidence is not ſuggeſted to your own minds by the detail I have ſet before you of the particulars of your duty, I know not by what words of mine I could hope to turn your attention to the ſubject. All that I ſhall attempt to ſay is this; that it will be highly to the credit of the clergy if the timely reformation of ſo ſerious an evil ſhould appear to come from themſelves, without any exerciſe of a compulſory authority, eccleſiaſtical or ſecular. The evil is grown to that gigantic ſize, that a remedy in one way or another can be at no great diſtance; and if perſuaſion prove ineffectual, or take not indeed a very ſpeedy effect, other meaſures muſt be taken, and other remedies muſt be provided. But of that in another place."

In this abrupt manner the charge concludes, leaving us in wonder and admiration at the abilities, firmneſs, and undaunted courage of the right reverend ſpeaker; but very much in doubt whether the cauſe either of Chriſtianity at large, or the church of England in particular, was well ſupported by ſuch a ſtring of invectives againſt thoſe who wholly reject the one, or differ in their interpretations of the Scripture from the other. From the extracts we have preſented to our readers, they muſt perceive that the charge is unique in its kind: it is a literary curioſity, which will in a courſe of time be purchaſed with ſingular avidity, if not with univerſal applauſe.

EDUCATION.

A Guide from the Engliſh Language to the French, or a French Grammar; wherein thoſe Caſes only are treated, on which the two Syntaxes do not agree; and the Rules are particularly adapted to the Genius of the Engliſh Language. By F. Henry. 12mo. 2s. 6d. *ſewed.* Dulau.

Not having before us the grammar of the abbé Henry (which we reviewed in our XXIIId volume, N. A. p. 463), we cannot poſitively affirm that this is only a new edition of that work: but, as far as our recollection enables us to decide, it appears to us to be in ſubſtance the ſame work, with a new title and occaſional alterations and improvements.

Grammaire Françoiſe et Italienne de Veneroni, &c.

The French and Italian Grammar of Veneroni, containing all neceſſary Inſtructions for learning the Italian Language with Eaſe; corrected according to modern Orthography, and the Deciſions of the beſt Grammarians; augmented by many uſeful Rules, a Courſe of Themes, a Treatiſe on Tuſcan Poetry, and ſome intereſting Extracts both in Proſe and Verſe. By R. Zotti. 12mo. 6s. 6d. *ſewed.* Dulau. 1800.

As an improvement of Veneroni's grammar has long been deſired, an able corrector of that work would be entitled to the thanks of the public: but, on comparing the preſent volume with the former work, we do not find reaſon to beſtow any high degree of praiſe on the labours of Zotti. The dialogues, which ought to have been varied and extended, are conſiderably retrenched: few of the rules are improved; and the additions are not in every reſpect judicious or neceſſary.

The Life of Rolla: a Peruvian Tale. With moral Inculcations for Youth. With a Frontiſpiece, repreſenting Rolla tearing from the Rock the Tree which ſupports the Bridge. By the Author of the Siameſe Tales. To which are added, Six Peruvian Fables. By the ſame Author. 1s. 6d. Newbery. 1800.

The principal part of this publication is founded upon the ſtory work'd up with ſo much intereſt for the public amuſement in the popular play of Pizarro. The performance is profeſſedly adapted

for juvenile minds; hence the writer, having found that Kotzebue had ſucceſsfully created a Rolla, extends the fiction, and, whilſt he 'indulges the playfulneſs of his imagination, and leads his young reader through the ſurpriſing and fanciful ſcenes of enchantment, he at the ſame time labours to convey thoſe uſeful precepts that may be remembered when the ripening judgement of youth, in its maturer operations, diſcovers the fiction and retains the moral.' In juſtification of his plan, our author advances a poſition from which we cannot withhold our aſſent.

'That fiction is the readieſt way to allure the young attention (he obſerves) is an opinion founded on a knowledge of the juvenile mind: the ancients reſorted to fable, to attract hearers among the common people, who, like children, had few ideas; ſatisfied they could convince better by that eaſy mode of inculcation, than by dogmatical precepts, the terms of which they could not underſtand: thus the wiſe Eſop ingeniouſly managed to convey the moſt important truths, and found fable a familiar kind of logic.' P. vi.

We think the writer's execution of the plan accords with the deſign propoſed. Several uſeful leſſons of morality are alſo inculcated under the title of 'Peruvian Fables.' Upon the whole, this little volume may be ſafely put into the hands of the young, as in it they will find amuſement blended with inſtruction.

Inſtructive and entertaining Dialogues for Children. By Mrs. Guppy. 2 *Vols.* 1*s.* Hurſt. 1800.

We forbear to criticiſe theſe dialogues, as we do not wiſh to deprive the 'girls' charity-ſchool' at Briſtol of any emolument which the authoreſs intends, by the ſale of her little volumes, to appropriate to the ſupport of an uſeful inſtitution.

POETRY.

Lord Auckland's Triumph: or the Death of Crim. Con.—a Pair of Prophetic Odes. To which are added, an Addreſs to Hymen; an Ode on the Paſſions; Advice to Young Women, or, the Roſe and Strawberry, a Fable; with a moſt intereſting Poſtſcript. By Peter Pindar, Eſq. 4*to.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Weſt *and* Hughes. 1800.

The ſubject of the "Pair of Odes" that compoſe the principal part of the preſent collection is too well known to our readers to render it neceſſary to ſtimulate their reminiſcence. Much of the native humour of the merry-making Peter Pindar, eſq. is ſtill retained in them; though, to ſpeak the truth, we cannot rank them among the happieſt of his performances. We ſhall copy the following, which we are told is "a true ſtory," as one of the beſt ſpecimens of the pieces contained in the pamphlet:

'A king of France upon a day,
With a fair lady of his court,
Was pleas'd at battledore to play:
A very faſhionable ſport.

'Into the boſom of this fair court dame,
Whoſe whiteneſs did the ſnow's pure whiteneſs ſhame,
King Louis by an odd miſchance did knock
The ſhuttlecock,
Thrice happy rogue! upon the down of doves,
To neſtle with the pretty little Loves!

'"Now, Sire, pray take it out"—quoth ſhe
With an arch ſmile. But what did he?
What? what to charming modeſty belongs!
Obedient to her ſoft command,
He rais'd it—but not with his hand!
No, marv'ling reader, but the chimney-tongs!

'What a chaſte thought in this good king!
How clever!
When ſhall we hear agen of ſuch a thing?
Lord! never.

'Now, were our princes to be pray'd
To ſuch an act by ſome fair maid,
I'll bet my life not one would mind it;
But handy, without more ado,
The youths would ſearch the boſom through,
Although it took a day to find it!' P. 16.

At the end of this publication we find a Poſtſcript, complaining, with no ſmall portion of wit, but an ampler admixture of ire, of two critiques upon a prior effuſion of our author's, entitled Nil Admirari *, introduced into the Anti-Jacobin Magazine and Britiſh Critic. But as we are not called upon to be umpires in the diſpute, we ſhall leave the combatants to their own pugiliſtic powers, without any interference whatſoever;

For he who thus would interpoſe,
Perchance might gain a bloody noſe.

Epiſtle to Peter Pindar. By the Author of The Baviad. 4to. 2s. 6d. Wright. 1800.

Poſtſcript to the Epiſtle to Peter Pindar.

Both theſe pamphlets are uſhered into the world in conſequence of the poſtſcript added to the foregoing. Among the characters attacked for having abuſed the Nil Admirari of Peter Pindar in different journals and other publications, the author of the Baviad holds a diſtinguiſhed ſtation, and he here replies with a virulence at leaſt equal to that of his antagoniſt. As the cauſe of truth is the only cauſe in which we can be intereſted in the preſent diſpute, or indeed ever wiſh to be intereſted in any, we ſhall paſs by the angry and unfounded note levelled againſt ourſelves in page 7 of the Introduction; and obſerve, that Mr. Gifford poſitively denies all concern in the article of the Anti-Jacobin Magazine adverted to by the antecedent writer; and declares, page 20, "in the moſt ſolemn and unequivocal manner, that, till the preſent

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XXVIII. p. 230.

moment, he never wrote a ſyllable concerning him in the whole courſe of his life."

Had the author of the Baviad confined his juſtification of himſelf to ſuch a plain and poſitive aſſertion as this, he would have anſwered every laudable end, and have kept himſelf on a level with thoſe gentlemen who, though equally attacked with himſelf, have had too much prudence to return any anſwer whatever. But the greater part of the Introduction, almoſt the whole of the Epiſtle, and more particularly the *anonymous* Poſtſcript, are compounded of ſuch low and Billingſgate abuſe, ſuch outrageous contempt of all that decorum which ſhould ever regulate the language of the gentleman and the ſcholar, and which the public has at all times a right to expect from thoſe who appeal to its judicature—ſuch dark inuendos, and unſupported hints of the foulеſt of vices, that we have ſeldom ſeen their ſuperior, and truſt we ſhall never again be forced to witneſs their equal.

We ſhall conclude with extracting the following note from page 18, to which we cordially wiſh the author had paid more attention.

'I am much pleaſed,' ſays he, 'with a paſſage in the Life of Burns. "I never ſaw him angry but twice," ſays his biographer; "once for ſome neglect in the foreman of the band; and the other time it was with an old man, for uſing ſmutty inuendos and double-entendres. Were every foul-mouthed (old) man to receive a check in this way, it would be to the advantage of the riſing generation."—Excellent!'

The Battle of the Bards; an Heroic Poem. In Two Cantos. The Author Mauritius Moonſhine, F. R. S. &c. 4*to.* 2*s.* Lackington. 1800.

It is not often that poets themſelves compoſe the *dramatis perſonæ* of their own pieces, and ſtill leſs frequently that they realiſe in their own conduct the peripetia of blood-ſtained tragedy: yet ſuch was the *dénouement* we were led to expect from the ardour of the two foregoing publications;—and a "battle of the bards," though not quite ſo bloody as many of which we have lately heard, was at leaſt as much a matter of courſe, from the declarations of war and the terms of defiance with which they were ſo highly ſeaſoned. Our readers are already ſufficiently acquainted with the tranſaction in the humble proſe of the diurnal papers; and we ſhall only, therefore, notice, that the preſent pamphlet furniſhes us with a repetition of the ſame, in mock heroics, embelliſhed with ſuitable machinery and other poetical decorations. It is divided into two cantos; and, though the balance is ſuſtained with a tolerable degree of impartiality, we think we perceive an inclination rather in favour of Sir Pindar than Sir Giffard.

Peter and Æſop; a St. Giles's Eclogue. 4*to.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Murray *and* Highley. 1800.

Ecce iterum Criſpinus! By this quotation we mean, however, no affront to either of the combatants. The ſubject of the foregoing

pamphlet is in a conſiderable meaſure purſued in the preſent; though the ground, it muſt be confeſſed, is ſomewhat different. The dernier reſource of a battle is at laſt appealed to; but it is preceded by a poetical dialogue between the parties, in a burleſque eclogue, happily parodied from Spencer or Virgil, and animated with all the ſpirit and flowers of eloquence with which the original publications of theſe redoubtable bards have of late abounded.

'Theſe flowers,' ſays the writer, 'it has been my buſineſs to weave into a chaplet, to ornament their reſpective brows; and which, I truſt, are of that amaranthine nature as to continue for ever in unfading beauty and luſtre. With theſe I have intermixed others, taken from their own hot-beds.

'There were ſome, indeed, of ſuch peculiar fragrance, and of ſuch indeſcribable delicacy, that I thought it better they ſhould "waſte their ſweetneſs on the deſert air" than run the riſque of being injured by a removal.

'To ſpeak more plainly: Peter and his opponent are equally unknown to me but by their writings. To their talents, of which no man can think more favourably than I do, I am ready to do homage; but I muſt ever expreſs my diſguſt, or be permitted at leaſt to laugh, at the miſerable, not to ſay beaſtly, uſe theſe irritable men make of ſuch valuable endowments.'

But enough of this abſurd and unnatural diſpute. We truſt the combatants have now peaceably returned to their own *harmonious* profeſſion; and that the only conteſt which will in future ſubſiſt between them will be *for the laurels of Apollo rather than the laurels of Mars.*

Bardomachia Poëma Macaronico-Latinum. 4*to.* 1*s.* Johnſon. 1800.

Bardomachia: or, the Battle of the Bards. Tranſlated from the original Latin. 4*to.* 1*s.* Johnſon. 1800.

Here we meet with another ſpecies of humour exerciſed upon this unhappy conteſt of the ſons of Apollo, and which has by far the advantage of all the productions to which this fertile theme has given birth. It is publiſhed anonymouſly; but the name of the writer appears in every line we have peruſed: and we have no heſitation in attributing it to a learned and facetious divine, who has formerly amuſed us with ſimilar effuſions. We ſelect the following, containing the entrance into Mr. Wright's ſhop, and the dreadful ſlaughter that inſtantly enſued, as a fair ſpecimen of the whole.

'Pindarus, hoc viſo, majori ferbuit ira;
Bili ac difficili tumuit jecur anſere majus!
Obliquè ſimul ac flammantia lumina torquens
Ad zigzagum hominem, reſonora voce profatur:
"An tu Mæviades? inſignis furcifer! an tu?"
'"Mæviades ego ſum: ſed non ſum furcifer:" inquit
Bombazdus Bardus—Reſpondet Petrus amarè:

" Furcifer es certô—ſed cur contendere verbis?
" Accipe quas meruit tua tanta audacia pœnas!"
Dixit; et, elato nodoſo ſtipite, fronti
Mæviadis tremuli validos conduplicat ictus.
Alcides ipſus, Lernæ cum tunderet hydram,
Non aliter duras, denſas, plagas repetivit.
Et, certè, ſi aliam plagam dare tum licuiſſet,
Conſimilem, Bardi ſoulam miſiſſet in orcum!
Purpureus, ſubito, fluxit de vulnere ſanguis;
Aſhæus color et rubicundas fundere cheekas
Eſt viſus; ſquintos nox atra obcœcat ocellos;
Ac mors ſeemabat præcox decidere ſortem
Eximii vatis; cum carminis autor Apollo,
Caræ ergò prolis, voluit ſervare parentem.
Heu! heu! Literalis quam grandis loſſa fuiſſet,
Si tum Mæviades clauſiſſet lumina vitæ!
' Protenus, elapſus nimboſa per æthera, Phœbus,
Peltieri ſimulans voltus et membra decora,
Deſcendit; mediâ ac ſe ſiſtit bibliothecâ.
Tyndaridæ Juvenes, Caſtor cum Polluce, fingunt
Servorum facies abſentis Bibliopolæ:
Tresque ſimul Superi, non æquâ lege, laceſſunt
Unum terricolam! Fuſtim dejecit Apollo
De dextra Petri meditantis plura trophœa:
Dum Ledæ fratres, magnâ vi, brachia ſtringunt
Pindarica; ac hominem portarum ad limina puſhunt.' P. 9.

We ſubjoin the Engliſh verſion, premiſing that it is far inferior to the humorous and pye-balled original.

' Him Peter ſpying, quickly to him ran,
And thus addreſs'd the zig-zag gentleman:
" Thou art, if from thy mien I rightly gueſs,
" The raſcal whom they call Mæviades!"
' " Mæviades I am," the bard replies,
" But not a raſcal"——
——" Not a raſcal?" cries
Th' indignant Pindar:—" never was a greater,
" Thou baſe, calumnious, everlaſting prater!
" But why in idle words conſume our time?
" Take this reward of thine audacious crime!"
He ſaid—and on the trembling varlet's head
Twice his ſtout ſtick with all his force he laid.
Not great Alcides his repeated thwack
Laid harder on the horrid hydra's back!
And, ſure, another ſtroke, ſo fierce and fell,
Would have diſpatch'd the poet's ſoul to hell
Or heav'n—The red blood down his temples ran!
His cheeks, ſo rubicund before, grew wan!
And Death, untimely Death, with ſcythe elate,
Was ready to decide his inſtant fate:
When Phœbus, loth to ſee a poet die,
In bloom of youth, reſolves to quit the ſky,
And ſave a parent, for his progeny:

I mean the product of his fertile brains;
His lawful offspring—his satyric strains.
Quick through the misty air Apollo steer'd,
And in gigantic Peltier's form appear'd!
Castor and Pollux wait on his command,
And in the shape of shopmen by him stand.
Thus three immortals (fate extremely hard!)
Attack at once a single mortal bard!
'And, first, Dan Phœbus, with a sudden stroke,
Dash'd from his uprais'd arm the murd'rous oak:
Then Læda's brothers, with resistless pow'r,
Tie both his hands, and push him to the door.' P. 11.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

A Defence of the Profession of an Actor. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Miller. 1800.

Our author, in polished, though occasionally in too highly laboured, perhaps inflated, language, defends the profession of a theatrical performer, and contends that he who animates the words of the poet ought to share at least in his fame and estimation. But the poet, whose memory is now adored, might, if alive, be equally neglected with the player; and, in our own times, Mrs. Siddons and Mr. Kemble may boast of attentions, in private, as great as those which once distinguished Roscius or Æsopus. Perhaps the irregular conduct of some eminent actors may have sullied the character, and occasioned the members of the same profession to be received with caution; yet those whose private lives have been irreproachable, have never found the attentions lavished on the stage withholden at other times. On the contrary, the stream of kindness, by having been occasionally restrained, has on other occasions flowed perhaps with profuse liberality.

Providence Displayed: or, the remarkable Adventures of Alexander Selkirk, of Largo, in Scotland; who lived Four Years and Four Months by himself, on the Island of Juan Fernandez; from whence he returned with Capt. Woodes Rogers, of Bristol, and on whose Adventures was founded the celebrated Novel of Robinson Crusoe. With a Description of the Island, and an Account of several other Persons left there, particularly William, a Mosquito Indian, and Capt. Davis's Men, including brief Memoirs of the famous Capt. Wm. Dampier. To which is added a Supplement, containing the History of Peter Serrano, Ephraim How, and others, left in similar Situations. By Isaac James. 12mo. 3s. *Button.* 1800.

We have often thought that the enthusiastic admirers of Shakspeare are the worst enemies of his fair fame, by tracing the original source of some of his striking beauties, and pointing out the prototypes of what had before been considered as his inventions. If the merit of De Foe could be lessened, it would be in some degree tarnished by the narrative before us, could we suppose him to have been acquainted with all the circumstances of the different persons left on rocks and desert islands. These adventures form an entertaining compilation; though the ingenuity

of De Foe (who details every contrivance with a ſimplicity which, in ſpite of conviction, almoſt perſuades us that the whole is real) will render his mixture of fiction, with a little truth, ſtill more intereſting. We ſeem to feel his narrative to be a real detail of events, and even truth ſuffers in the compariſon.

A Meteorological Journal of the Year 1799, *kept in London, by William Bent. To which are added, Remarks on the State of the Air, Vegetation, &c. and Obſervations on the Diſeaſes in the City and its Vicinity.* 8*vo.* 2*s.* Bent.

The ſituation of the inſtruments employed, particularly of the thermometer 'hung out at a window up one pair of ſtairs' in Paternoſter-row, is not the moſt eligible; and, from ſome comparative obſervations, two or three degrees of temperature may be detracted from the obſerved height. Of the hygrometer we can obtain no adequate correction, ſo that we ſhall not notice it. The *mean* of the barometer for 1799 was 29.85; its greateſt and leaſt heights were 30.65 and 28.94 in December and November reſpectively. The mean height of the *out-door* thermometer was 48.8; 46° nearly: the mean heat of April 44.5; March and June were the dryeſt months; July and September the wetteſt: yet, on the whole, the quantity of rain which fell ſcarcely exceeded twenty-one inches.

Elegance, Amuſement, and Utility; or the whole Proceſs of Varniſhing on Paper and Wood, with every Improvement. By J. Creaſe, Bath. To which is added, Gilding, Working in Black and Gold, mounting Drawings, cleaning Pictures, &c. &c. 8*vo.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Champante *and* Whitrow.

The directions in this little tract are clear and judicious. We therefore can ſafely recommend them to the practitioners of thoſe elegant amuſements which the author profeſſes to teach, and in which our fair countrywomen are now ſo great proficients.

Plan of Proceeding: Octavo.—First Part. Holmes' Tract on Bodies Corporate generally, thoſe in Exeter ſpecially, which includes the novel County-Rates, Exeter, 1799.—*Second Part. Holmes' Epitome of Political Hiſtory, ancient and modern, commented on, in Hope of affording ſome Information to the middle and lower Claſſes of Mankind, countenancing Virtue and diſcouraging Vice.—Third Part. Holmes on the Police of Exeter ſpecially, ancient and modern, as an Accompaniment to Izaacke's Memorials of the City.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* No Publiſher's Name.

After all the attention that we can beſtow, we find it very difficult to aſcertain the object of this very obſcure author. He ſeems to be diſpleaſed at the levying new county rates, while ſufficient revenues, given for the ſame or ſimilar purpoſes, are poſſeſſed by the corporation. 'Non noſtrum eſt tantas componere lites.' As an apology, however, for our uncertainty reſpecting the author's meaning, and our inability to underſtand his very inverted incomprehenſible ſtyle, we ſhall tranſcribe his firſt paragraph.

'Dear Sirs, Exeter, the laſt day of 1799.

'The love of my king and country, duty to magiſtrates, and that equity may be the ruling principle in this city; being a deaf, healthy, independent perſon, paſſed 64 years of age; no family beſides four houſhold ſervants; a freeman of Exeter; S. C. L. Oxford; and my comfortable independence affording me leiſure, with a diſpoſition to ſtudy to promote the public welfare of my native city—I, therefore, conſider myſelf bound by Chriſtian duty to make known to you the truths of the premiſes, in a treatiſe, formed from genuine manuſcripts and the beſt printed authorities in my power, of which I hope to ſhew that I now poſſeſs a plenty.' P. i.

The General Apiarian, wherein a ſimple, humane, and advantageous Method of obtaining the Produce of Bees, without deſtroying them, is pointed out in a Series of Letters to a Friend. By J. Iſaac, Secretary to the Apiarian Society, eſtabliſhed at Exeter. 12*mo.* 2*s.* 6*d. ſewed.* Johnſon.

We are pleaſed with the judicious directions of the ſecretary to the Apiarian Society, and can ſafely, from experience, recommend his advice as perſpicuous, comprehenſive, and profitable.

Report of the State and Progreſs of the Inſtitution for the Relief of the Poor of the City of London, and Parts adjacent, ſituate in New-Street and Friar-Street, Blackfriars: with a Liſt of the Subſcribers. 8*vo.* 1*s.* Phillips. 1800.

From this Report it appears, that 240,832 meals of an acceptable and very nutritious diet have been afforded at the expenſe of £. 971. 2*s.*; a circumſtance very encouraging to humanity. But, to have a clear idea of the inſtitution, we ſhould be glad to know, in the next Report, what is the average time conſumed by a poor perſon from his firſt entrance into the labyrinth till he receives his baſon of ſoup.

Scattered Thoughts. 12*mo.* 3*d.* Weſt *and Hughes.* 1800.

Scattered thoughts indeed! Lent, hot croſs-buns, rolls, muffins, crumpets! And Good Friday is termed by this pietiſt the "moſt ſacred of all days!" We ſhould be glad to learn by what authority; ſince, though we know of many days having been hallowed in holy writ, we could never diſcover that Good Friday was placed at their head by divine, or even human, authority of any great weight. There is one remark, however, which families would do well to conſider, and that is, the propriety of having cheeſe in theſe times after dinner. The total abſtinence from cheeſe, in houſes where meat is generally conſumed, is a great ſaving to the family and alſo a benefit to the poor.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

We have received Dr. Jones's packet, and the polite note incloſed in it. We return him our thanks, and ſhall be happy to hear from him in future.

Mr. Sedgwick's letter is received, and will be duly attended to.

APPENDIX

TO THE

THIRTIETH VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Des Signes et de l'Art de Penser, considérées dans leur Rapports mutuels. Par J. M. Degerando. Paris. 1800.

On Signs, and the Art of Thinking, considered in their mutual Relations, &c. 4 *Vols.* 8*vo.* Imported by De Boffe.

WE fear the author himself has anticipated our apprehensions, that these volumes will be little read. The subject is abstruse, the arguments vague and flaccid, and the language, though precise, seldom elegant or clear. M. Degerando's attempt was suggested by a prize offered for the following question, by the National Institute: "To determine what is the influence of signs on ideas?" This however was branched, in the programma, into many other questions. "1. Would the art of thinking be perfect, if the art of signs were brought to perfection? 2. Is it not owing to the perfection of signs, that in some sciences truth is received without contradiction? 3. In those which furnish eternal fuel for controversy, is not the difference of opinions the necessary consequence of the inaccuracy of language? 4. Is there any method of correcting a badly-constructed language, and of rendering all sciences equally susceptible of demonstration?"

After perusing this work with some care, we cannot help thinking that a comprehensive mind might have reduced these volumes into little more than one. In English works, the

ſubject has been already exhauſted; and, unleſs intellectual ideas can be meaſured and counted, certainty cannot be obtained. Definitions have been multiplied, in different Engliſh works of divinity and metaphyſics, without the leaſt approach to accuracy of language; and proofs have been logically, even mathematically arranged, without coming nearer to demonſtration. Can language be rendered unexceptionably accurate? We think not, for it is not of a nature to allow of minute diſcrimination; and where words have been limited with the utmoſt attention, a ſuitable advantage has not always been obtained.—Let us, however, attend to our author.

His memoir, which obtained the prize, was comparatively ſhort; but it has ſince been enlarged, and is now extended to the two firſt volumes. The firſt part contains the anſwer to the literal ſenſe of the queſtion: it is deſigned to explain the influence of ſigns on the formation of our ideas. The ſecond part extends to the meaning of the queſtion, and the views which appear to have influenced the Inſtitute in its choice. It is deſigned to ſhow the preciſe influence which a perfect ſtate of language would have on the art of thinking.

'Each of theſe parts is afterwards ſubdivided, in a manner equally ſimple and natural. In the firſt, which is wholly hiſtorical, I ſhall be conducted by facts as they ariſe. Two principal points of view here offer themſelves: 1ſt, the creation of the ideas, and the ſigns expreſſing them; and, 2dly, their mode when created. Thus this vaſt hiſtory of the human mind divides itſelf into two great æras; one which conducts us to the moment when man became *poſſeſſed of all the inſtruments* of thought, and another when he is engaged in employing them. In tracing the hiſtory of the firſt we ſhall explain how the individual, eſcaping from abſolute ignorance and inaction, receives from nature ſigns already formed, and invents new ones; conceives ideas, and returns to retrace them; and how theſe two operations are entwined and connected in a thouſand ways. In tracing the hiſtory of the ſecond we ſhall explain all the operations which the mind exerciſes on theſe ideas, and ſhow in what manner, by means of ſigns, theſe operations become the principles of all our knowledge: we ſhall point out how their perfection or defects determine our progreſs or our wanderings. It is thus, in ſtudying anatomy, the profeſſor firſt deſcribes the ſtructure of each organ, and then explains the functions for which it is deſtined.

'In the ſecond part, which conſiſts wholly of applications, I ſhall follow the order pointed out by the arrangement of our acquiſitions, that I may demonſtrate what improvement is ſtill to be made in each, the means of obtaining this improvement,

and the advantage of ſigns (*langage*) as one of theſe means. The moſt ſimple method of arranging our intellectual acquiſitions is into the truths of fact, which conſiſt in the relation of our ideas to *things*, or to the external models which repreſent them; and abſtract truths, which conſiſt in the relation of our ideas to each other. Sometimes we wiſh to form a judgement of the exiſtence of beings, of their properties and actions: ſometimes, abſtracted from the world, and employed within the ſphere of our own conceptions, we are engaged alone in comparing them. Thus there are ſome ſecrets which we extort from nature, and there are ſome diſcoveries which we make by our own conceptions.

'The firſt part we ſhall divide into two ſections; one explaining the hiſtory of the formation of ſigns and of our ideas, the other treating of the operations of the human mind on theſe ſigns and ideas, which will of courſe explain their influence on our acquiſitions. The ſecond part will be equally divided into two ſections: in the firſt, I ſhall ſhow how the perfection of the art of ſigns will promote our progreſs in the acquiſition of facts; in the ſecond, I ſhall examine how the ſame perfection will aſſiſt it in the inveſtigation of abſtract truths.'

Such is our author's plan, which we have given in his own words; it is well conceived; and, excepting a little confuſion in the firſt part, between ideas and language, appears correct and philoſophical. It is not, however, purſued with vigour, and queſtions of facts are often diſcuſſed by empty declamation. We regretted that, when ſpeaking of hiſtory, he had not traced the ſubject hiſtorically, by inveſtigating the connexion between ſounds and ideas in brutes, how far *their* ideas are ſimple or compounded, and how far they may be expreſſed by ſounds differently modified or inflected. This might have been followed by tracing the ideas of infancy, which at firſt are equally ſimple with thoſe of brutes, and purſuing them till they become more complicated.

The firſt chapters of the firſt ſection are employed in analyſing the intellectual functions, of which our author ſpeaks with ſome preciſion; but he approaches too near materialiſm, without guarding againſt its ill conſequences. He decides alſo too poſitively on ideas being wholly derived from ſenſible objects. We mean not to ſay that in this he is erroneous; but he ſhould have conſidered the ſubject more fully, and diſpoſed of ſome diſputed queſtions, particularly that of inſtinct, which we think diſcoverable, in ſome degree, in early infancy. His ſyſtem of the inſtitution of language is that of the abbé Condillac. This uſeful medium of communication is afterwards perfected by experience and reflexion; 'but how many years

(he adds) would it not employ, to form a language ſo varied and artificial as the Greek.' This, however, he ought to have known, is not an original language. Its genius, its character, and its roots, have their prototypes in the Egyptian or Chaldee; and it was enriched, from other parts of Aſia, by a large vocabulary of new words. The errors in the conſtruction of languages, and the faults committed in ſpeaking them, are explained with ſome care, and this chapter merits attention. The ſecond volume is more intereſting than the firſt; but, having developed its object, we ſhall not enlarge upon it farther. To ſelect any part from a work which conſiſts of a connected chain of reaſoning, would be perhaps unfair, if produced to be cenſured,—and not peculiarly intereſting, if intended as a favourable ſpecimen.

The third and fourth volumes are, we think, in many reſpects, more captivating ſtill, and diſplay the author's talents, and the extent of his knowledge, in a more auſpicious view. The ſecond part, which we have ſaid is on the influence which a more perfect ſtate of language would have on the progreſs of knowledge, contains many valuable diſquiſitions. Our author's remarks on claſſification, and on a language founded on analogy, are peculiarly intereſting. From this laſt ſubject we ſhall ſelect the following paſſage.

'What I underſtand by the *language* of a ſcience is, the collection of terms employed to point out the facts of which the ſcience conſiſts. This language will be analogous, or poſſeſs the higheſt degree of deſcriptive analogy, if, having fixed on certain ſimple terms for the primitive and elementary circumſtances, each fact ſhould be expreſſed by a derivative appellation, whoſe compoſition ſhould recall all the ſimple ſigns which correſpond to the circumſtances, the union of which is preſented by the fact.

'It is not of importance that the ſimple ſigns poſſeſs a ſenſible analogy; for the mind can eaſily retain a ſmall number of arbitrary terms, and the memory will be only exerciſed by ſuch combinations. In other reſpects, it would be impoſſible to find, for the greater number of elementary circumſtances, ſuch ſigns as would, in their imitation, be unequivocal.

'To conceive the advantages which would ariſe, in ſciences of obſervation, from a language ſtrictly analogous, we muſt define with preciſion the uſes for which ſuch a language is deſigned. We have juſt ſaid, that every individual requires words, to fix in his mind the reſults of his own obſervations; and that many individuals require them, to communicate to each other their acquiſitions. In examining, firſt, the uſe which every one makes of the language of ſci-

ence for his own purpoſes, we ſhall obſerve, that were it poſſible to introduce a perfect analogy in the terms of which it is compoſed, four remarkable benefits would reſult.

'First, the words themſelves would be more rapidly learnt, better retained, and more eaſily recollected. In reality, with this hypotheſis, fewer words would be required. Having determined upon a few elementary ſigns, we ſhould poſſeſs all the data neceſſary for forming complex words. Seven or eight radicals would be ſufficient for many millions of combinations. The compoſition of words would alſo be regulated by the ſtrict laws of analogy; ſo that it would not be more difficult to aſſociate the radicals, than to learn them. A few rules would give a key to the whole ſyſtem. The ſight or the remembrance of the facts would be ſure marks to remind us of the names, for theſe are only the repreſentation of the facts. This experience would daily aid the habits of the language, and the ſenſes aſſiſt the underſtanding. In this way, language, preſenting itſelf in a complete deſcriptive tablet, might be caught at a glance; nor could a word be loſt; ſince it would leave a vacancy in the tablet, and the connecting terms would explain how the vacuity ſhould be filled. If we ſhould want any word, we ſhould not be obliged to ſeek it indiſcriminately: it would immediately recur, by a ſimple and methodical proceſs, directed by the analogous terms.

'The ſecond advantage is ſtill greater. With an analogous language, the facts themſelves are better fixed in the mind.

'The third advantage of an analogous language conſiſts in its cloſe connexion with a ſyſtem of methodic claſſification. In reality, the language itſelf requires and ſuppoſes a ſtrict and regular claſſification of the facts which it ſerves to repreſent.

'The fourth conſiſts in the power of multiplying, more rapidly and more carefully, obſervations and experiments.'

The illuſtrations of the ſecond, third, and fourth advantages, we have omitted, as it would make our article too extenſive. The obſervations on univerſal language, which conclude the third volume, are very juſt, but not peculiarly intereſting, after the comprehenſive analyſis of all our intellectual acquiſitions, in the very ſingular and juſtly celebrated work of biſhop Wilkins. Our author is however neither ſanguine in his expectations of ſucceſs in this attempt, nor ſatisfied of its benefits. He remarks, with ſome propriety, that works formerly publiſhed muſt be read, and their reſpective languages ſtudied; adding, that even the ſtudy of foreign languages is not ſo barren and unintereſting as ſome have ſuppoſed. The ſubject of univerſal language is afterwards reſumed, and the different attempts that have been made in this work carefully conſidered.

The fourth volume relates to abſtract ſciences, and the advantages which muſt reſult to theſe from the greater perfection of ſigns. This volume is not ſo intereſting as the third, and we do not think our author appears in ſo happy a light as in that of a metaphyſician.

On the whole, there are two modes of perfecting the art of ſigns; the one conſiſting in the information of the ſigns themſelves, the other in the more correct employment of thoſe which we poſſeſs. Language may undoubtedly, as our author contends, be rendered more commodious for uſe, and more favourable to the progreſs of intellectual acquiſitions; yet every attempt of this kind will not rectify all the faults, or make any language a ſtrictly philoſophical one; and perhaps the reformation for the one purpoſe may render it leſs fit for the other. The perfection of language, in either way, would have numerous prejudices to ſurmount; and the poet would loſe by the ſtrict preciſion which the philoſopher would require. We ſhould ſtill, probably, "talk with the vulgar, though we ſhould think with the wiſe."

Even in intellectual acquiſitions, as our author juſtly remarks, the ſame preciſion is not equally attainable; and, as we have already obſerved, ſpace and numbers can alone be meaſured or counted. When the ſame language is employed in abſtract ſciences, the attempt is ſometimes ridiculous, and generally uſeleſs. It was Pitcairn, we believe, who, after a laborious calculation, determined that the proper doſe of a medicine was in the ratio of the ſquare of the conſtitution; and the mathematician, who looks at Doddridge's 'Demonſtrations' of the moſt abſtruſe points of theology and metaphyſics, in the compaſs of a few lines, will perhaps ſuſpect that a definition has been omitted, and that the term 'demonſtration' means only a diſtant probability.

It is not without reaſon, therefore, that our author recommends the improvement of common language, and a greater attention in philoſophic writings, to the preciſe meaning of words. The arbitrary terms ſhould be employed more ſtrictly, and according to an accurate definition. The ſyſtem of language is too unconnected; and has not, till within theſe few years, and chiefly by Engliſh writers, been founded on the generation and progreſs of our ideas. This ſtudy will probably be purſued; and its advantages, apparent *à priori*, will, we are convinced, appear more ſtriking by numerous ſucceſsful reſults. In this inquiry, the poet and philoſopher may coincide; for the new and unexpected combinations of the former may contribute to illuſtrate the ſpeculations of the latter. 'In this way,' adds our author, 'we ſhall gain the advantage of being able to ſupport the empire of truth by all the charms of elocution, and to aſſociate the effects of per-

ſuaſion with thoſe of rigorous demonſtration—of elucidating abſtractions by a happy choice of metaphors, and bringing compariſons to the aſſiſtance of methodic definitions—of ſimplifying or expanding a thought, and giving it a form ſuitable to the nature of the ſubject, and the diſpoſitions of thoſe to whom it is addreſſed.'

Signs influence the art of thinking, either directly, by their immediate connexion with the operations of the mind, or indirectly, by the relation they have to the expanſion of our faculties. However perfect, they will not equally influence or aſſiſt every branch of knowledge: in abſtract ſciences their perfection will be uſeful; in experimental ones it will have little influence. The indirect influence of ſigns affects, at the ſame time, the attention, reflexion, imagination, and memory; but each ſcience employs theſe faculties in a different degree: experimental knowledge employs the memory, hypothetical inquiries the imagination, abſtract ſciences the attention, morality and philoſophy the reflexion. Yet even the perfection of language would only aſſiſt, in ſome degree, the progreſs of ſcience: it has many worſe enemies than the abuſe of words;—but this is no part of the preſent inquiry.

On the whole, from the analyſis and ſpecimens of our author's work, our readers will perhaps join in the opinion we have already offered. At leaſt we have endeavoured to enable them to judge for themſelves, and wiſh only, on this as on every other occaſion, that *truth ſhould prevail.*

Rélation du Voyage à la Recherche de La Pérouſe, fait par l'Ordre de l'Aſſemblée Conſtituante, pendant les Années 1791, 1792, *et pendant la première et ſeconde Années de la République Françoiſe. Par le Citoyen Labillardière.* Paris. 1800.

Report of the Voyage for the Diſcovery of La Pérouſe, undertaken by Order of the Conſtituent Aſſembly, during the Years 1791, 1792, *and the firſt and ſecond Years of the French Republic.* 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* Imported by De Boffe.

THOUGH two tranſlations of this work have appeared, we ſhall prefer at leaſt announcing the author of this voyage in his original dreſs. It is ſingular that M. Labillardière ſhould be the narrator, as he was only naturaliſt in the expedition, which was not completed when he left the ſquadron; and, though M. d'Entrecaſteaux was dead, a ſucceſſor muſt neceſſarily have been provided, who would be in poſſeſſion of the inſtructions and the confidential details. On this account we ſhall not follow M. Labillardière in his cenſure of the conduct of the officers, or of the commander.—*His* merit muſt ultimately be appreciated by the diſcharge of his commiſſion;

and of this we cannot at preſent determine. Of the object of the voyage we ſhall ſpeak preſently; but muſt firſt introduce the author in his own manner.

'Natural hiſtory was the earlieſt ſubject of my attention: convinced that we muſt inveſtigate her productions, and form a correct idea of her phænomena in the vaſt volume of Nature, I went to England as ſoon as I had finiſhed my medical ſtudies. This journey was ſoon followed by another to the Alps, where the ſoil offers an immenſe variety of productions, in proportion to the varied temperature at different heights of the mountains.

'I next viſited a part of Aſia Minor, where I reſided two years, to examine the plants of which the Greek phyſicians have left very incomplete deſcriptions, and had the ſatisfaction to bring back a very beautiful collection. Soon after I returned from this laſt voyage, the National Aſſembly ordered two veſſels to be fitted out, to ſave if poſſible a part at leaſt of thoſe who remained after the misfortunes of La Pérouſe. It was a glorious duty to join men who were employed to reſtore to their country thoſe who had been no ſmall benefactors to her. In other reſpects this voyage was alluring to a naturaliſt;—new countries would offer new productions, which would contribute to the advancement of ſcience and the arts.

'My taſte for voyages had all this time continued to increaſe; and three months of navigation in the Mediterranean, when I went to Aſia Minor, was a ſpecimen of a long voyage. I ſeized therefore with eagerneſs this occaſion of traverſing the Pacific Ocean. If to gratify the paſſion for ſtudy coſt us dear, the varied products of a new country will amply repay the ſufferings inſeparable from navigation.'

In general, our author is well qualified for the taſk. The uſual events, and the details of natural hiſtory, he could himſelf ſupply. For nautical obſervations he was indebted to M. Legrand; and M. Piron, painter to the expedition, preſented him with a copy of all his drawings.

The ſhips engaged in theſe inquiries were the 'Recherche' and the 'Expedition,' of about five hundred tons each; the former had one hundred and thirteen men, and the latter one hundred and ſix:—aſtronomers, naturaliſts, painters, and gardeners, were, as uſual, a part of the crews. 'It is painful to add, that, of theſe one hundred and nineteen, eighty-nine had died before my departure from the Iſle of France. It muſt, however, be obſerved, that we had loſt few only in the courſe of the voyage, and this dreadful mortality was owing to our long ſtay in the iſland of Java.'—Eighty-nine out of one hundred and nineteen! and in a voyage where Engliſh navigators have not loſt a man by diſeaſe.

The fate of the unfortunate La Pérouſe we have followed with an anxiety, to be explained only by a ſympathetic feeling for his misfortunes; and perhaps in this Journal only has he been followed ſtep by ſtep, from our LXVth volume to the IId volume of our New Arrangement, and from thence downward in our XXIIId, XXIVth, and XXVIth volumes. We have always expreſſed our decided opinion, that he fell a ſacrifice to the inhoſpitable ſavages on the north of New Holland, and by ſome accident rendered irretrievable by the Aſtrolabe always following in the wake of the commodore. The National Aſſembly acted with ſpirit and humanity in ordering this ſearch, at a moment when ſelf-preſervation was occupying the chief of their attention. Their views ſhould be aſcertained by their inſtructions; but, as theſe have not reached us, we muſt examine them by the conduct of the commander; and to this we immediately proceed.

Much blame has been attached to M. d'Entrecaſteaux for the courſe he purſued. He certainly in one part confeſſedly went beyond his inſtructions; for having heard that ſome of our ſhips, particularly one under captain Hunter, had ſeen at the Admiralty Iſlands ſome ſavages in European dreſſes, and in French uniforms, he at once haſtened there. It has been pretended that he ſhould have viſited New South Wales for intelligence. He did not, and the event ſhowed that he was right, for no intelligence had arrived there. If, indeed, the remaining crew had ſurvived either on the Admiralty Iſlands, or any neighbouring land, the accounts could not have arrived at Sidney-Cove till it had reached Europe, ſince it is the route *on the return only*. M. d'Entrecaſteaux went immediately to the ſouthern point of New Caledonia, from thence north and eaſt to the Admiralty Iſlands, the north of New Guinea, and to Amboyna. This was very nearly the track which La Pérouſe's inſtructions pointed out, as we mentioned in our XXIIId volume, New Arr. p. 484. It is however certain, that, in his letters, he ſeemed to have preferred the ſouthern tract, between New Guinea and New Holland; but the admiral was perfectly juſtified in purſuing the former, which was the line La Pérouſe was directed to follow, when he heard that ſome remains of a French crew had been ſeen in the Admiralty Iſlands, in the direction of La Pérouſe's firſt inſtructions. It is unfortunate only that, as captain Hunter was at the Cape ſome hours before M. d'Entrecaſteaux ſailed, he had not obtained completer information, for we apprehend the report was wholly unfounded.

From Amboyna our navigators proceeded to the ſouth-weſt, to the weſt coaſt of New Holland, and coaſted along its ſouthern ſhores to Rocky Bay. From the ſouthern extremity of Van Diemen's Land, ſince found to be a cluſter of iſlands, they again take their departure, reach the northern extremity

of New Zealand, and from thence proceed to the Friendly Iſlands, and anchor at Tongataboo. Why they went ſo far to the eaſtward it is not eaſy to explain, except from accidental winds, or from wanting a ſupply of proviſions. It is more unaccountable, ſince the iſland of St. Croix was La Pérouſe's moſt eaſtern deſtination, after leaving New South Wales. To St. Croix, however, they proceed from Tongataboo, after touching at the north-eaſtern coaſt of New Caledonia, and then advance to the ſouth of the archipelago of Solomon, examining the north coaſt of New Britain, and paſs a little to the north of their former courſe. They then viſit the Molucca Iſlands, and make a fatal delay, as we have ſeen, at Batavia. After which M. Labillardière goes only with the ſquadron to the Iſle of France.

It is a ſubject of conſiderable regret, that the ſouthern coaſt of New Guinea was not examined, as well as the Gulf of Carpentaria and the north coaſt of New Holland: and the moſt difficult problem will be, to explain why, after leaving St. Croix, M. d'Entrecaſteaux ſhould proceed in nearly his former route to the *north*, while the ſouth was not yet explored—the very part which La Pérouſe determined to viſit.

As we ſhall now leave the original work, and purſue our account of the voyage, in a future number, from the Engliſh verſions, it is neceſſary to notice the ornaments of the French edition. The chart is executed, like all the French charts, with peculiar neatneſs: it is alſo unuſually full in the weſtern part of the Pacific Ocean, where, from the formation of numerous coral iſlands, the ocean, from the north-eaſt of New Holland to Acheen-head, may in time become a vaſt continent. The map is, however, incorrect in a more important view. It is a faithleſs aſſiſtant in purſuing the courſe of the navigators, and by uſing indiſcriminately the terms 'the firſt year of the republic,' and 'the year 1792,' as if they were different æras. In the Engliſh charts, the routes outwards, and in the return, are properly diſtinguiſhed, but they are not wholly free from ſome confuſion.

The ſecond is a view of the Admiralty Iſlands, with ſeveral of their canoes with out-riggers, &c. executed ſomewhat harſhly, but with great ſpirit and clearneſs.

The third is a man of the Admiralty Iſlands, ſtrong, robuſt, and muſcular,—the features approaching rather to the European than the Malay.

The fourth repreſents the fiſhery of the ſavages at Diemen's Cape, and the fifth their preparation for a repaſt, equally ſpirited and correct. Their fiſhery ſeems carried on by diving only, and their prey chiefly oyſters, crabs, or lobſters.

The ſixth repreſents a woman of Van Diemen's Cape (New Holland); and the ſeventh a man and a boy of the ſame coun-

ny. They reſemble in features the other inhabitants of this raſt iſland figured by the viſitors of Botany-Bay.

Finau, the chief of the Tongataboo warriors, differs greatly in character and features from the reſt of the inhabitants of the Friendly Iſlands, and approaches the European. He is repreſented in the eighth plate; and in the ninth is a view of the black ſwan of Cape Diemen; in the tenth a figure of the black ſpotted parrak (a kind of perroquet); in the eleventh the calao of the Iſle of Waigiou, a ſpecies of buceros, the horn-bill of Latham.

The twelfth plate repreſents the aſeroe rubra, the ſpiders which the inhabitants of New Caledonia eat, with different utenſils; the thirteenth a beautiful ſpecies of eucalyptus, the e. globulus. In the fourteenth is the exocarpos cupreſſiformis; in the fifteenth the diplarrena Morea; in the ſixteenth the richea glauca; in the ſeventeenth, mazeutoxeron rufum; in the eighteenth the carpodontos lucida; in the nineteenth the mazeutoxeron reflexum; in the twentieth another ſpecies of eucalyptus, the e. cornuta; in the twenty-firſt the chorizema ilicifolia; in the twenty-ſecond the anigozanthos ruſa; in the twenty-third and twenty-fourth the Banksia repens and nivea.

The twenty-fifth plate repreſents a male and female ſavage of New Zealand: the expreſſion of the former's countenance diſplays a horrid malignity; and in the latter the ſame features are only ſomewhat ſoftened. The entertainment given by Toubau, chief of the Friendly Iſlands, to general d'Entrecaſteaux is the ſubject of the twenty-ſixth plate. The view of the country is wild and irregular, and the entertainment not of a very ſplendid kind. A dance in the ſame iſland, in the preſence of the queen, is more ſoft and elegant, but ſcarcely more intereſting. The double canoe of the ſame iſlands, the ſubject of the twenty-eighth plate, is very peculiar. It does not, like the other double canoes of the Society Iſlands, conſiſt of two united laterally, but has two ſtories raiſed on a raft, and appears not deſtitute of elegance, though little adapted for ſpeed.

In the twenty-ninth plate is a repreſentation of Toubau, the ſon of the king of the Friendly Iſlands, and of Vouacécé, an inhabitant of Fidgi, a neighbouring iſland. In the thirtieth plate, a woman of the Friendly Iſlands, and one of Amboyna; and in the thirty-firſt, thirty-ſecond, and thirty-third, various utenſils of the Friendly Iſlands are delineated. In the thirty-fourth plate is a repreſentation of a man and woman of the iſland Beaupré, an iſland to the north-eaſt of New Caledonia, with no particular traits, and no very prepoſſeſſing appearance. A man and woman of New Caledonia follow: they are robuſt and muſcular. Theſe figures are ſucceeded by two plates of the implements and huts of the ſavages of the ſame iſland.

A ſpecies of picus of New Caledonia is next repreſented, with ſome plants of the ſame country, viz. the dracophyllum verticillatum, and antholoma montana.

The forty-ſecond, forty-third, and forty-fourth, the laſt plates of this volume, contain a view of the harbour of Bourou, with a repreſentation of the perogues of Bouka, of the iſlands of the Arſacides of New Caledonia and St. Croix. In general theſe plates are executed with great ſpirit and elegance: the botanical in particular are very valuable for their animation and characteriſtic appearance. The events of the voyage we ſhall purſue in the Engliſh verſions.

Voyage à Canton, Capitale de la Province de ce Nom à la Chine, par Gorée, le Cap de Bonne Eſpérance, et les Iſles de France et de la Réunion; ſuivi d'Obſervations ſur le Voyage à la Chine de Lord Macartney et du Citoyen Van Braam, et d'une Eſquiſſe des Arts des Indiens et des Chinois. Par le C. Charpentier Coſſigni, Ex-Ingénieur. 8vo. Paris.

A Voyage to Canton, the Capital of the Province of that Name, by the Way of Goree, the Cape of Good Hope, and the Iſles of France and Reunion, &c. Imported by De Boffe.

THE principal part of this work conſiſts of obſervations on the embaſſy of lord Macartney and M. Van Braam. In the ſame ſtyle M. Coſſigni means to examine the accounts of Stavorinus. It may appear ſomewhat preſumptuous in an author who reſided only a ſhort time at Canton, and made one or two very limited incurſions into the interior parts, to blame thoſe who, to ſuperior opportunities of information, joined greatly ſuperior abilities; and we ſhall find many of the remarks rather captious than ſolid.

The voyage before us is not embarraſſed by nautical details, or the events during navigation. We have neither dolphins nor water-ſpouts, flying-fiſh or turtles. M. Coſſigni ſtops only with the ſhip, and finiſhes the detail when the anchor is weighed.—Goree is only a rock, about a league in circumference: the road affords good anchorage, but the harbour is obſtructed by a bar. The iſland is ſcarcely cultivated, and the wood and water for ſhipping muſt be brought from the continent. It contains however a ſpring of excellent water for the uſe of the inhabitants. Our author ſaw here ſome 'negreſſes of ſingular beauty, with Roman features, very ſmooth and black ſkin, white and even teeth, large and fine eyes.'—Since the abolition of the ſlave-trade in France, the importance of Goree is confeſſedly little. Before their arrival

at Goree, and while yet beyond ſight of land, the atmoſphere was clouded by ſand raiſed from the coaſts of Africa. For the determination of the longitude he thinks watches the moſt eaſy method, though he does not on the whole prefer them to the lunar diſtances, which ſhould not, in his opinion, be neglected.

The Cape of Good Hope engages much of his attention. Its ſituation is convenient for procuring refreſhments in an Indian voyage, but he allows it little other merit. The cattle, the ſheep, and the poultry, are confeſſedly excellent. The pulſe is fine, but watery. European fruits abound, and the grape is of an extraordinary flavour. The ſoil, however, is barren, and the whole of the ſouth of Africa ſandy and without trees; which, in a ſtate of nature, are conſtantly produced by a fertile ſoil. The inhabitants are therefore diſtributed in the valleys, by the ſides of the mountains, &c. and the population can never be numerous. It furniſhed Holland with two cargoes of wheat only in a year, beſides what was ſent to Batavia, which returned, however, a greater proportion of rice. There is no great portion of land ſo rich as not to require manuring, and they prefer the dung of cattle; that of horſes being, in their opinion, too hot. They never hoe, or employ marle, lime, or gypſum, have but one harveſt a year, and allow the ground to be one year fallow. In the Iſles of France and Reunion, they have, he obſerves, a crop of maize, or rice, after the harveſt of wheat. The wheat of the Cape is ſubject to ruſt: the return about ten for one.

The Cape has no port. When a ſhip wants 'to heave down,' ſhe muſt go to Saldanha Bay, fifteen leagues to the north-weſt, where water is with difficulty procured, and proviſions ſcarce. The road is unſafe from May to September, and ſhips are then obliged to go up to Falſe Bay, on the other ſide of Table mountain. The incurſions of the Caffrees and Boſhiemen are occaſionally troubleſome; but, with prudent management, may, our author thinks, be prevented. The only tree found in the neighbourhood of the Cape is the Protea argentea: the foreſts are far within; and, about four leagues to the north-weſt, is a wood compoſed wholly of camphire trees. The European trees have degenerated there. Our author recommends trying the black wood of India, a ſpecies of acacia, as of quick growth, and affording wood very proper for joiner's work.

'It ſeems to me that ſome eſtabliſhments ſhould be formed on the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, at the bottom of ſome of the bays, where the anchorage is firm and the acceſs eaſy. The Company ſhould there build ſtorehouſes, to receive the rents of the coloniſts, and furniſh in return goods of every

kind. They ſhould have cruiſing veſſels for the ſafe ſeaſon, which might return to water in Saldanha Bay, where a dock-yard ſhould be conſtructed. This very ſimple plan would be highly advantageous to the Company, and contribute greatly to the proſperity of the colony.'

Such is the whole of our author's account of the Cape which has any pretenſions to novelty. We muſt, however, allow it to be tolerably correct; though it is neceſſary to beware of a bias, which leads him to raiſe the importance of the Mauritius at the expence of the Cape. We have often expreſſed our opinion, that this extremity of Africa, without ever being highly valuable as a colony, might be rendered very productive, and, by its returns, more than counterbalance its expences. Should it do this, a very convenient reſting-place might be obtained at an eaſy rate.

In the voyage to the Mauritius (Iſle of France) the luminous appearance of the ſea was found to proceed from phoſphoreſcent inſects. A rippling in the ocean was attributed by the ſeamen to a current; but, as it was tranſitory, our author rather thought it owing to electricity. He ſhould however have known, that ſo general a conductor as water would not have admitted of ſo partial an effect, or allow it to be for any time confined.

'We noticed the Iſle of Roderigue, about one hundred leagues to the windward of the Iſle of France. It is uninhabited, ten or twelve leagues in circumference, has little wood, and ſome tolerably high mountains, with plains ſuſceptible of cultivation, refreſhed by rivulets of excellent water. It has a port to leeward, where ſome ſhips of the line may anchor. It once afforded a large number of tortoiſes, but many have been carried to the Iſle of France, and the reſt devoured by the rats and wild cats.'

On arriving at the Iſle of France, the veſſel muſt hold her wind, as the moſt frequented port is to leeward of the wind which uſually blows in theſe ſeas. If the gale be not ſtrong, a ſweet perfume is perceived to expand around, which is attributed to the flowers of the canella, though improperly, as theſe have rather a fœtid ſmell. The iſland itſelf is peculiarly valuable, by having two ports, one to leeward and the other to windward, which may eaſily be ſecured from ſtorms: and the interior, though far from the degree of proſperity of which it is ſuſceptible, offers every kind of refreſhment to navigators. It is about fifty leagues in circumference; and, beſides the two ports, has many roads, more or leſs ſafe. The ſoil is volcanic, with numerous baſaltic columns, and the ſhore covered with the debris of corals and madrepores, which make tolerable lime. The whole is enlivened by uſeful trees.

The north-weſt port, which leads to a large, regularly-built city, is the only one frequented by veſſels. Its entry is ſtraight, and defended by forts to the right and left. The height of the neighbouring mountains would ſeemingly protect it from hurricanes; but this is by no means the caſe. They are always preceded by a remarkable fall of the barometer, and violence of the waves on the reefs, even though there is not the ſlighteſt wind. Rice, maize, manioc, and three valuable kinds of potatoes, with almoſt every fruit, and every different kind of pulſe, from India, China, Madagaſcar, and Europe, grow there luxuriantly. The ſagoutier, or the bread-fruit tree, where the farina is found in the interſtices of the wood, is a moſt valuable production of this iſland, though we believe not an indigenous one. Another valuable tree of the ſame kind, called the mallora, a variety of the voakoa, another palm-tree of Madagaſcar, grows here alſo, whoſe farina is contained in the fruit. The means of procuring the farina of theſe trees, its management and uſeful qualities, are diſtinctly deſcribed. The ſlaves, their mode of living, and their management, is noticed with equal care. The great nuiſances of this iſland were the whirlwinds, which they ſtill experience, and the beetles, which the martins, introduced from India, and which have greatly multiplied, deſtroy, and will ſoon extirpate. It is ſaid that, in Siam, a large ſpecies of rats have been introduced, which feed on the bamboo only: theſe are in conſtant hoſtility with the other rats, which they have almoſt wholly deſtroyed. It will be lucky if their new allies are not more injurious; for, with us, the preſent rat, which is of Norway, has deſtroyed the black Engliſh rat, without leſſening the evil. The game and fiſh, in theſe regions, abound; but a numerous tribe of predatory birds are highly injurious.

In general, as a place of refreſhment for worn-out navigators, our author thinks it excellent; as a port, it abounds with every convenience. In a commercial view, it can furniſh various objects of trade, ſuch as ſugar, coffee, cotton, indigo, ſpices, &c: in a military light, it may be a depôt, which will ſupply an army and a navy for any attempt. A plan for promoting its proſperity is ſubjoined: *we know* that our government is in poſſeſſion of a plan for its conqueſt, but we know not why it is not executed.

The Iſle of Bourbon (the Iſle of Reunion) was coloniſed more early than the Mauritius, which was ſettled only in 1722; its air is more wholeſome, and its population more conſiderable. Its mountains are more numerous and lofty; and it has ſtill a volcano, which occaſionally diſcharges, without injury, as there are no habitations in the neighbourhood, or in the courſe of the lava. It has however no port, and the

landing is always dangerous. The productions of the Iſle of Reunion are the ſame as thoſe of Mauritius.

We ſhall not follow our author to Java, Sumatra, &c. but reſt with him again at Canton, omitting the navigation of the river Tigris, which affords nothing new. We will ſtop, however, to tranſcribe the following ideas, wholly French, though introduced with ſomewhat of an apology. The paſſage is not long.

'The cuſtoms of a people ſo widely different from Europeans cannot be eaſily appreciated, becauſe men in general refer their opinions to their cuſtoms; and what differs from theſe they think ſtrange,—what oppoſes them abſurd. The Chineſe are in the ſame ſituation when they judge of us. How many Pariſians will be ſurpriſed to learn, that, even in the capital cities of Nankin and Pekin, there are no public-walks, no regular entertainments, concerts, or balls; no idlers, who wiſh only to attract obſervation, and introduce new faſhions; no annuitants, no landlords who conſume the products of their lands without tilling them. Every individual is conſtantly employed. The women are confined; ſo that there are no opportunities of captivating, by the variety, the grace, the elegance, and richneſs of dreſs. Theſe cauſes produce a ſimplicity of attire, without grace, elegance, or manners. The Chineſe are nearly the ſame at preſent as formerly; I ſay *nearly*, for the hat is of the Tartar faſhion. They once had long hair, but were ordered to cut it; and they obeyed without remonſtrance.'

The account of tea is full, and we believe accurate, but not new. If the Engliſh were to attempt to cultivate the plant in Bengal, it muſt be, he thinks, in the northern parts. In the Iſle of France it has failed. In our author's opinion, the cultivation may ſucceed on the mountains, in the ſouth of Madagaſcar, and ſtill better on thoſe of the Cape of Good Hope; but the plants muſt be carefully brought from the interior of China. We ſhall however add, once for all, that in philoſophy our author appears but an indifferent proficient, in natural hiſtory his knowledge is imperfect, and in his medical receipts he diſplays the unbounded credulity of a weak mind. We can beſt depend on his deciſions in political œconomy. It has been the object of his ſtudies: he is there at home.

A modern author has obſerved, that the feſtival, when the emperor deſcends from the throne to guide the plough, is as frivolous as the Grecian worſhip of Ceres, and does not prevent millions of the Chineſe from dying of hunger. 'This author has not ſeen,' adds M. Coſſigni, 'that this feſtival, repeated the ſame day through the whole empire by every governor, every general, and every prieſt, is a religious cere-

mony only, and that its object is to implore the benevolent protection of the Divinity on agriculture. The emperor, and every one who aſſiſts at it, prepare themſelves by a faſt of three days. It is preceded by a ſolemn ſacrifice. The harveſt of the field, thus tilled, is preſerved with reſpect, and employed only in great ſacrifices to Chang-ti, or the Sovereign Lord.'

The homage paid to the Divine Being is pure. Each individual, of every different religion, may join in it, and the prieſt has little ſhare. 'The Chineſe are ſubject to famines. True; but where,' adds M. Coſſigni, 'can they be ſupplied. A thouſand ſhips, of a thouſand tons each, would afford only ſix pounds of rice to each individual, where the population amounts to 350,000,000 of inhabitants. All the countries of the Eaſt could not produce ſuch an immenſe reſource; ſo that the Chineſe muſt depend on themſelves. It is in vain,' he obſerves, 'to think that commerce can afford ſubſiſtence to a numerous nation; and the Engliſh, maſters of the ſea, whoſe population is not equal to that of one of the ſmalleſt provinces of China, not one-fortieth part of the whole empire, have experienced the truth of this doctrine.' We may add, that the fact is not true in the ſenſe thus ſtated. England wanted aſſiſtance from commerce, and has obtained it.

M. Coſſigni attempts to be their panegyriſt, for not having improved in the fine arts. If any thing can be drawn from his apology, it is, that theſe will not make men happier, or a nation more proſperous; that the Chineſe had them before us, and might ſtill have them, if they thought their advantages would repay their labour. They are our rivals, he remarks, in ſpeculative and practical morality, in agriculture and legiſlation. In this aſſertion there is nothing ſolid. China is, on the whole, an infertile ſoil,—its inhabitants temperate and laborious. Hence ſuch a ſoil, without any ſpeculative or practical morality, without any legiſlative excellence, will feed, in general, numerous inhabitants; and, in ſuch circumſtances, inhabitants will neceſſarily increaſe. It is a trait of ſingular humanity, that the emperor alone can pronounce ſentence of death, and that the warrant muſt be ſigned three times, in three different councils, before it can be put in execution. Their other puniſhments, however, are highly cruel, though the late emperor, Kien Long, prohibited mutilation. Slavery is ſtill common. Yet for every cuſtom our author has a reaſon, an apology, or a panegyric.

Our traveller gives but a ſhort account of the porcelain manufacture, and mentions chiefly the painting, the only part which the Europeans are permitted, we believe, to ſee. 'They have many methods of mending broken china. They rivet the pieces, ſomewhat like our manufacturers, but the ri-

vets do not paſs through: ſecondly, they cement the parts; and this ſeems the beſt method. They take the animal part of corn (the bran), made into a paſte, and well waſhed; this they mix with the white of an egg, and ſuffer the whole to ferment. It is then uſed as a cement, and the pieces kept in cloſe contact for ſome days. The Malays have another method: they dry the cheeſy part of curdled milk, and keep it for the ſame purpoſe. This they ſcrape, and mix it with powdered lime and milk.'—This laſt method we know to be very effectual.

In ſome ſlight excurſions, which were permitted, into the interior, our author obſerved a Tartar village; and at the foot of the walls were many bones, which were ſaid to be the remains of criminals thrown from the top, and left as the prey of rapacious birds. The privation of burial is the greateſt puniſhment to a Chineſe, as the tombs of their anceſtors are objects of regard and veneration. It was added, that adulterers were tied together, face to face, between two planks, and thus thrown into the ſea. This is alſo probably true, as the Chineſe are ſcrupulous about ſhedding blood. On the commerce of the Chineſe we need not enlarge: our author alone, we believe, ever ſpoke with reſpect of their commercial knowledge or integrity; but he ſeems to feel it a tender ſubject. On their diſeaſes, or rather the diſeaſes of Canton, and their remedies, he is not very inſtructive. The Chineſe agriculture is now ſufficiently known. They manure their lands by watering, and cultivate the bottoms of ponds which are occaſionally dry, and even plant the bulbous aquatic plants in thoſe which are not ſo. In this we ſee only patient induſtry, excited by frequently-returning famine: our author ſurveys it with admiration, as ariſing from a knowledge almoſt ſupernatural.

The Chineſe make paper with ſilk, with the bamboo, with the ſtalks of vegetables, and with the bark of the tchu-kou, a kind of fig-tree, which he thinks would grow in France, and of the cultivation of which he gives a full and intereſting account. He ſaw no uncommon animals in China, and adds nothing to our knowledge of its religion, its muſic, or its arts. The literary mandarins ſuppoſe that China was peopled by a race from the heights of Tartary. This does not ſeem to our author, on the whole, probable; and the Miao-tſe, a hardy race of mountaineers inhabiting the internal parts of China, ſubdued by Kien Long, are probably the aborigines of this nation, driven into inacceſſible faſtneſſes by the Tartarian horſe. Some farther particulars of this intereſting race would be highly valuable—intereſting, we mean, with reſpect to the great queſtion of early population, rather than any thing peculiar to themſelves. Our author's return offers nothing particularly worthy of notice.

The ſecond part of this work contains 'obſervations on

lord Macartney's embaſſy;' in which, as we have already obſerved, many of the remarks are rather captious than ſolid; and ſome of the criticiſms, we perceive, ariſe from the errors of the French tranſlator. Thus we find many complaints why the accounts were not more particular:—in one or two inſtances, why plants were not more ſcientifically deſcribed, when we are informed they were not in bloom. He muſt know, that to be inquiſitive was not the way to learn, as it would lead to ſuſpicion, and conſequently to more cautious vigilance. It cannot have eſcaped even an inattentive reader, that the embaſſadors were not in a much better ſituation than ſtate-priſoners, and that guards of honour had alſo a ſecond and leſs honourable office. We cannot, however, follow theſe remarks particularly. We ſhall notice a few, where the author's obſervations ſeem to merit ſome attention, confining ourſelves to China. Previous, however, to his criticiſms on ſir George Staunton's narrative, he combats the aſſertions of the French tranſlator, and particularly thoſe which relate to the early and extenſive navigation of the Chineſe.

The firſt remark of importance, in a national view, is on the inſtructions given to captain Gower of the Lion. 'When I compare,' ſays he, 'the extenſive views of the Britiſh cabinet with the contracted ones of our former government, I am jealous of the one, though compelled to admire them, and indignant at the other.' From the route, and other circumſtances, M. Coſſigni ſeems to be convinced that one of the objects of this embaſſy was to procure the port of Taron, in Cochin-China, to form an eſtabliſhment. It went afterwards, he thinks, to Canton, to *demand* the ceſſion of the iſland Wampon, in the river of Canton, or of Macao; perhaps to obtain the excluſive privilege of the commerce of China; offering, in return, to clear the coaſt of pirates. 'The Engliſh nation carried its views farther. Its object was to reconnoitre ſome of the principal iſlands in the Chineſe ſeas, to diſcover where it could form an advantageous eſtabliſhment, from whence it might give laws to the Chineſe, by cruiſing on their coaſts, and ſeizing their veſſels: after that, to attempt to open the ports of Japan excluſively to itſelf. The Lion was alſo directed to go to Mindanao, which is independent of the Spaniards, and in open hoſtility to Gillolo, one of the Moluccas not under the dominion of Holland,' &c.—Though much of this is conjectural, yet the whole may have ſome degree of truth; and it may be equally true, that the ultimate object was to ſhare the ſpice-trade with Holland, then one of the allies of England; for to take it away (the author's expreſſion) would be impoſſible. Is there in all this any thing criminal, any thing diſhonourable? for, as to giving law to China, by

attacking its veſſels, is an addition of M. Coffigni. He contraſts this conduct with that of La Pérouſe, in one inſtance: let him contraſt it with La Pérouſe's conduct in another. In theſe ſame ſeas, while entertained in a Spaniſh harbour, he confeſſedly took plans of its forts, and arranged a mode of attacking them. We noticed the paragraph in our review of his voyage.

On the paſſage which deſcribes the number of people who in China live on the water, M. Coffigni adds the following remarks:—'I have ſeen, at Canton, the town of boats on the river. They are arranged in files, and form ſtreets. I have been told that theſe inhabitants of the water are forbidden to live on land:—*there they are born, and there they die.* I know not whether they are enjoined by religious or political motives to adopt this habitation. A man of credit, acquainted with the Chineſe language, who had lived five years at Canton, told me, that the number obliged to live in boats amounted to 300,000 ſouls, including the ladies of pleaſure, the whole number of which amounts to 40,000, and who are forbidden to reſide on land. It is ſingular, and truly unuſual in Aſiatic princes, that the Chineſe monarch has no titles. His public edicts mention only his name and the year of his reign, or the date of the edict.

M. Coffigni defends, in ſome meaſure, the expoſure of children. More might be killed in ſecret than now die, for thoſe who are found are brought up by government or charitable perſons. We ſhall add one other remark, as a ſpecimen of his general manner, and the very indiſtinct ideas he poſſeſſes of medicine.

'CCXXXVIII. Among the number of things proper to ſtrike the imagination of the Chineſe, and convince them of the ſuperiority of the Europeans in what concerns the ſciences and arts, ſir G. Staunton places the operation for recovering the ſight by the depreſſion or extraction of the cataract. I knew a perſon at Pondicherry who had been blind from his youth, I believe, in conſequence of the ſmall-pox, *The eyelids were cloſed. He very dexterouſly made an inciſion, by which he took away the cataract, and reſtored ſight to two very fine eyes.*'—I do not believe that the Chineſe ſurgeons would have been equally dexterous; but I can certify the truth of the anecdote mentioned, which was told by a perſon of credit, the ſubject of the operation, and confirmed by his father and mother.'

We would only aſk, if there be in this caſe, as related by our author, the ſlighteſt ſuſpicion of the diſeaſe being a cataract; or, if it were, of the lens being extracted?

In the obſervations on Van Braam's embaſſy, our author oppoſes the idea of the Chineſe being the moſt ancient nation on this globe: he even denies that their union in civil ſociety is of longer duration than that of the Hindoos. In both reſpects his opinion is well ſupported.—He conſiders the Dutch embaſſy as not having been received with ſuch honours as the Engliſh, for which he often hints that the Engliſh paid more largely; and to this the ſuperior reſpect is attributed. We find nothing in the remarks deſerving an extract, but ſhall add a few obſervations from the concluſion.

'The commerce of the Engliſh with China is become the moſt conſiderable of that carried on by any company in India; and it will probably increaſe, till Bengal can furniſh the quantity of tea neceſſary for the Engliſh conſumption, ſhould the tea-tree flouriſh there. The freights of China are leſs rich than thoſe of Bengal, but more numerous. The tea, from habit, is become a neceſſary beverage to the three kingdoms: and government ſhould encourage the faſhion, as it checks the taſte for ſtrong liquors, and is much more wholeſome.'

'Though we ſhould be able, which is very uncertain, to open the canal of communication between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean; though the navigation ſhould be always free, which is doubtful while the Arabs are in the neighbourhood; though it ſhould not be again obſtructed by the clouds of ſand which the wind raiſes in theſe parts; I believe that the route to India, by the way of the Cape, for the conveyance of merchandiſe to Europe, will be ſhorter, leſs dangerous, and occaſion leſs waſte.'

This poſition our author ſupports with great judgement.

A ſketch of the arts of the Indians and Chineſe follows, and contains many curious and intereſting remarks. From its miſcellaneous nature we cannot abridge it, and our article is too long to admit of farther extracts. On the whole, the reader of this work will be, in turns, pleaſed and diſguſted, inſtructed and irritated, at the author's occaſional weakneſs and partiality: yet he will not regret the time employed in the peruſal; and ſome parts will form an uſeful appendage to the narratives of ſir G. Staunton and M. Van Braam.

Mémoires de l'Inſtitut National, &c.

Memoirs of the National Inſtitute, &c. *(Continued from Vol. XXIX. New. Arr. p. 493.)*

'XXVII. A DISSERTATION on the Genus Phallus. by M. Ventenat.'

Our author received a new ſpecies of phallus from America;

and when endeavouring to eſtabliſh its genus, and aſcertain its rank among the other ſpecies, he was induced to afford a careful examination to each. He hereby found that botaniſts are by no means conſiſtent in this part of natural hiſtory; that the more modern authors have neglected ſome very intereſting obſervations made by their predeceſſors; and the explanation of the genus, as well as its ſpecies, is, of courſe, incomplete.

'I have endeavoured therefore,' he remarks, 'to reſtore the omiſſions, to recal the ſpecies which had been overlooked, and to eſtabliſh their mutual relations: I have availed myſelf of this opportunity to add the new ſpecies, which well deſerves attention.'

The hiſtory of the changes which this family of muſhrooms has experienced is curious; but muſt not detain us: the generic character, as reformed by our author, we ſhall copy.

'Pedicle either naked or armed with a volva; hat cellular, adhering wholly to the pedicle, or only by its top, often terminated by a cloſe or perforated umbilicus; ſeeds extremely thin, very numerous, ſituated in the cellules of the hat.'

The ſpecies are divided into thoſe with a naked pedicle and thoſe with a volva: in the former the hat adheres through its whole extent to the pedicle; in the latter the hat is without an umbilicus, or the umbilicus is cloſe. The new ſpecies is ſtyled 'induſiatus, ſtipite tereti, celluloſo induſiato pileo brevi reticulato.'

'This beautiful ſpecies, (adds our author) which is ſufficiently characteriſed to diſtinguiſh it from every other individual of the claſs, is copiouſly produced in Dutch Guiana, about 300 paces from the ſea, and nearly as far from the left bank of the river of Surinam. It was communicated to me by the elder Vaillant, who diſcovered it in 1755 on ſome raiſed ground which was never overflowed by the higheſt tides, and is formed of a very fine white ſand, covered with a thin ſtratum of earth. The prodigious quantity of individuals of this ſpecies which grow at the ſame time, the very different periods of their expanſion, the brilliancy and the varied ſhades of their colours, preſent a proſpect truly pictureſque. As this muſhroom is not attacked, according to Vaillant's obſervation, by any ſpecies of inſect, it does not probably exhale the diſagreeable ſmell of the phallus impudicus. As the ground is embelliſhed by numerous individuals of different ages, it is probable that this ſpecies is not perpetuated, like the moſillus impudicus, by a tubercle uſually found at its root.'

The trivial name is derived from a fringed roll that ſeems to unite the hat to the pedicle, which expands, and forms a beautiful reticular covering for the ſhaft.

'XXVIII. A New Determination of the Orbit of Mercury. By Jerome Lalande.'

The difficulty of determining the orbit of Mercury chiefly ariſes from the difficulty of obſerving this planet in conſequence of its vicinity to the ſun. Copernicus never ſaw it; and when our author obſerved Mercury on the ſun in 1753, he found the tables of Caſſini and Halley differed by five hours. In the tables of De la Hire the error was ſtill greater. Our author, in conſequence of his obſervations, propoſes to ſubtract 10″ from the ſecular motion of Mercury, which then becomes 2ˢ 14° 4′ 100; and to ſubtract 17″ from that of the aphelion, which becomes 1° 23′ 28″ His method we cannot eaſily abridge. It conſiſts in taking the paſſages of Mercury over the ſun by twos,—that is, one towards the aſcending, and another towards the deſcending node, to aſcertain the place of the aphelion in the laſt and preſent century. He had antecedently and repeatedly obſerved Mercury in his aphelion and perihelion, ſo that he was better enabled to aſcertain the reſt. The equation of the orbit he found to be 23° 40′, and the motion of the aphelion 56″ annually.

'But I ſhall ſoon have occaſion (he adds) to preſent to the Inſtitute an object more important, which has neither been impeded by troubles nor dangers, and which I could ſcarcely hope to complete when I undertook it: I mean the number and exact determination of the ſtars down to the ninth magnitude. The number already known amounts to 37,000; and there will probably be 50,000 when the zones are completed ſo far as the tropic of Capricorn. I have publiſhed the reſult with reſpect to the principal ſtars in the "Connoiſſance des Temps," ſince the year 1794. In that of 1799 will be found 2000 remarkable ſtars, hitherto unknown. The principal obligation for this immenſe labour is due to M. F. Lalande, my relation, and one of our beſt aſtronomers. The firſt obſervations are found in the Memoirs of the Academy for 1789 and 1790: the reſt will appear in the Hiſtoire Céleſte, the printing of which will, I truſt, ſoon begin.'

'XXIX. Obſervations on a ſimple Idiopathic Atrophy; that is, an Atrophy not preceded by any original or previous Diſeaſe, nor accompanied by any accident or any peculiar Symptom. By M. Hallé.'

The caſe is not unexampled; though rare. In the inſtance adduced, the conſtitution advanced rapidly, and decayed equally prematurely. The menſes commenced at ſeven, and began to diminiſh at ſeventeen years of age. At twenty-one they had wholly ceaſed. From this period the patient grew gradually thinner; her ſtrength decayed inſenſibly, without any evacuation to which the debility might be attributed. She walked

about till within fifteen hours of her death, including the night, and at noon the following day died, complaining only of ſleepineſs. No diſeaſe appeared on opening the body, and no affection of the mind had preceded, though her temper was ſomewhat timid, and inclined to jealouſy.—In atrophy in general we have reaſon to ſuppoſe either a deficiency of abſorption or of the application of the aliment. Yet neither ſeems to have taken place here: what ſhe ate was evidently, from the ſtate of the alvine evacuation, digeſted, and its alimentary parts abſorbed; and, if abſorbed, the exceſs ſhould have promoted ſome evacuations from the ſkin, urine, &c. From the appearances on diſſection there was reaſon to ſuſpect an obſtruction in the lymphatics; but the concocted motions oppoſe this idea, and the reſt of the lymphatic ſyſtem was pervious, ſince there was an abſorption of the fat under the ſkin. The deficiency muſt have been in the application of the nouriſhment; for the veins were very full, though the arteries were empty.

'XXX. Obſervations on a Petrifaction found on Mont Torre Noir, in the Department of the Loire. By M. Daubenton.'

The obſervations of this veteran in mineralogy, on what has been ſuppoſed petrified wood, will in a great degree elucidate the important queſtions ſtill undetermined reſpecting the anthracolite of this and other countries. The foſſil of Mont Torre Noir was eight or ten feet long, laid parallel to the ſtrata of grit, and fixed in a great degree in the rock. Its bark, it was ſaid, was replaced by a ſtratum of bitumen, and the texture as well as the knots of the wood were ſuppoſed to be very diſtinct.

So many miſtakes had occurred in examining theſe foſſils, that Daubenton long ſought for a diſtinguiſhing mark of petrified wood; and this criterion he publiſhed in a memoir on the pechſtein in 1787. In what had ever been wood he could diſtinguiſh, in a tranſverſe ſection, the medullary prolongations; in this foſſil none could be diſcovered; and the knots, though like the eyes in the bark, were, on examination, very different. From the appearance of organiſation, and the conviction that it was not a woody ſubſtance, our author next ſuppoſed it a madrepore, and, on farther examination, actually found many ſtars of aſtroites. An aſtroite is compoſed of tubes adhering to each other, which contain longitudinal laminæ of a hard calcareous nature: theſe laminæ extend from one end to the other, and from the centre to the circumference of the tube, leaving, at the centre, and on each ſide, ſpaces in which the animal that has produced them reſided. The extremities of the tubes appear on the outſide of the aſtroite: the terminations of the laminæ which they contain are obvious, forming rays which ſomewhat reſemble thoſe of a ſtar, whence the name of aſtroite.

A ſingle animal extends from the centre to the extremity of each tube; and when it is dead, if water, charged with ſiliceous particles, reach its former habitation, it becomes wholly a ſtony ſubſtance. This petrifaction is of a blackiſh brown, which undoubtedly ariſes from the neighbouring bitumen; but it loſes the colour in the fire, and aſſumes a reddiſh hue. It ſtrikes fire with ſteel, reſiſts the action of lime, and makes no effervescence with aqua-fortis: in fact, cryſtals of quartz, compoſed of two pyramids without a priſm, are obſervable in this petrifaction. Madrepores, and indeed all animal ſubſtances, are greatly diſpoſed to petrifaction in the way juſt deſcribed.

'XXXI. A Memoir on the glutinous Part of Wheat. By M. Teſſier.'

It is well known, from the experiments of M. Parmentier and others, that the bran of wheat is of an animal nature; and it was the chief object of M. Teſſier to inquire how far the proportion of this vegeto-animal matter was influenced by different manures. He found, by ſome preliminary trials, that the Poliſh wheat contained much leſs of this ſubſtance than the early, or the American wheat; and that, in general, thoſe whoſe grain was hard contained leſs than the ſofter grains: the glutinous part was alſo more friable in the former than the latter; and the diminution of weight is, as may be ſuppoſed, in the inverſe ratio of the proportion obtained.

In our author's experiments the ſpring wheats poſſeſſed a larger proportion of the vegeto-animal matters than the autumnal ones. The plat manured with urine produced the largeſt quantity; that with night-ſoil the leaſt. A medium between both was produced by the plats manured by horſe, by cow, and pigeons' dung, by the blood of oxen and decayed vegetables, as well as that which was not at all manured: all theſe produced an equal quantity. Various other inquiries are, in our author's opinion, neceſſary to complete this ſubject; particularly to inveſtigate whether other ſeeds contain this vegeto-animal matter. Rye, barley, and oats, have undoubtedly no portion of it; but no other ſeeds have been examined. The variation of ſoils and of expoſures alſo have never been inquired into. Parmentier has obſerved, that *corn* growing in moiſt or barren ſoils contains ſcarcely one ounce in a pound of this matter: the extremes in our author's experiments were four and ſix ounces: in the greater number the produce was five ounces in the pound.

'XXXII. On a particular Method of ſtudying Anatomy, employed in the Form of an Eſſay, containing Inquiries reſpecting the Teeth and the Bones of the Jaws. By M. Tenon.'

'XXXIII. Second Eſſay on the Grinding Teeth of the Horſe at different Periods.'

The ſtudy of the animal ſtructure at different ages is of importance; but with reſpect to the teeth in the human ſubject it is in a great meaſure exhauſted: the changes in the teeth of horſes are of leſs conſequence; and the whole depends too much on the plates to be abridged with advantage. The paper muſt be read entire.

It is time, however, to turn to the more pleaſing and popular departments of the Inſtitute. We ſhall examine the ſecond philoſophical volume of theſe tranſactions, which we have received, in our next Appendix.

Volume I. 'On Literature and Polite Arts' commences with the propoſal of two prizes. The ſubject of the former 'What are the changes which the French language has experienced from the times of Malherbe and Balzac to the preſent period?' and of the latter, 'What influence has painting ever produced, or can poſſibly produce, on the manners and government of a free people?' Theſe queſtions are addreſſed to the learned of all nations, excepting the members and aſſociates of the Inſtitution, who are prohibited from engaging in the diſcuſſion. The diſquiſitions muſt be written in French. The former muſt be ſent to the Inſtitute before the 1ſt Vendimiaire, of the year Six; and the latter before the 1ſt Nivoſe of the ſame year. The prize to the victor will, in either caſe, conſiſt of a golden medal, of the weight of five hectograms.

A liſt of printed books, preſented by different perſons to this claſs of the Inſtitute, follows; which are ſcarcely worth noticing, whether in point of individual value or number. We paſs on, therefore, to the memoirs themſelves.

'I. Remarks on ſeveral Articles in the Nouvelle Encyclopédie reſpecting the Ellipſis and Elliptic Phraſes; the Completion and Regulation of Sentences; the Supine and Participle; the Relatives *Qui*, *Que*, *Quoi*, *Lequel*; the Expreſſions *Qui eſt-ce?* or *Qu'eſt-ce?* By Dewailly.'

M. Dewailly is well known as a grammarian and etymologiſt: his grammar has paſſed through at leaſt ten editions, and he has ſupported his opinions by papers occaſionally introduced into the 'Nouvelle Encyclopédie,' the 'Mémoires des Trevoux,' and ſeveral other periodical journals. In the former publication, however, it appears that he has been oppoſed by other grammarians who have reſiſted his principles; and he now corroborates himſelf by new obſervations and the occaſional concurrence of Dumarſais and Fromant. We cannot enter into the diſpute; but it appears to us that the French grammarians are far behind thoſe of the De la Cruſcan Academy in Italian literature, and Harris, Lowth, and Tooke, in our own; and that the principal fault of their writers of modern times does not conſiſt ſo much in defective grammar as in hyperbole

and tumefaction of ſtyle. In theſe reſpects there is an immenſe difference indeed between the manner of Malherbes and Balzac and that of the verboſe and glaring authors of the preſent day.

'II. Obſervations on the Pronoun *Soi*. By M. Lemonnier, Aſſociate Member.'

This paper is, in ſome meaſure, connected with the preceding. It was unanimouſly decided by the French Academy, ſome few years ſince, that the pronoun *ſoi* ought always to be imperſonal. M. Lemonnier oppoſes this dictate, as well from the writings of Paſcal, La Bruyère, and Voltaire, as from ſome happy inſtances of the equivocal ſenſe the pronoun *lui* muſt neceſſarily introduce in certain circumſtances when adopted in its ſtead. We inſert the following example for the benefit of thoſe who are now initiating themſelves in the knowledge of the French language: 'Jean prie Guillaume ſon frère d'aller à la foire lui acheter un cheval; il lui remet une ſomme d'argent pour cette emplette. Guillaume part; dépenſe l'argent de Jean; mais au lieu d'acheter le cheval pour *lui*, c'eſt pour *lui* qu'il achete.' To render this paſſage clear, *ſoi* ſhould be, doubtleſs, employed in the place of *lui* in the ſecond inſtance, notwithſtanding the bans of the late Académie Françaiſe.

'III. Firſt Memoir on the Neceſſity of inſtructing Children who are born Deafly-dumb, and on the Means of communicating with ſuch unfortunate Beings. By M. Sicard.'

This is indeed a moſt important paper, and ought to be tranſlated at full length into every exiſting language. It is introduced by ſome general obſervations, which we forbear to copy, that we may have room for a ſhort ſketch of the method of inſtruction propoſed by the ingenious writer. He firſt of all places before his pupil ſeveral ſimple articles well known in common life, as a key, a knife, a watch, a pencil: he exhibits the various uſes of theſe inſtruments before him; and when he is well acquainted with their uſes by the exerciſe of his viſion, he gradually informs him that he has occaſion for them, by repreſenting the action they produce. From this ſimple ſign of the fingers alone he advances to drawing, and delineates theſe different inſtruments on paper. The object and the ſign of the object hereby mutually repreſent each other: by touching the object he expreſſes his want of the drawing; by touching the drawing he expreſſes his want of the object. Signs are thus made the repreſentations and ſymbols of things that are abſent, and pave the way moſt commodiouſly for the knowledge of letters. This in reality is acquired by writing the letters, by which any of the above ſigns are ſpelt, againſt the drawings or ſigns themſelves, and exciting and renewing the attention of the pupil to them till he is acquainted as deeply with their repreſentative power as with that of the drawings

or hieroglyphics. To acquaint him with the order in which they occur in the alphabet, and with the difference between vowels and conſonants, he is gradually taught the idea that the former have a binding or connecting power over the latter, without the exerciſe of which they could never be united into words, or become ſymbolical of things. The letters of the alphabet are therefore, on this account, divided by M. Sicard into *connecting* and *connected*, as terms far more familiar and eaſy to be comprehended by his pupil than the terms vowels and conſonants; the power of each vowel or connecting letter is diſcovered to him by frequent reference to a variety of words in which it occurs, and the meaning of which is firſt of all taught by introducing the things for which they ſtand, or their repreſentative drawings. Some deviation is alſo made in the accuſtomed order of the conſonants of the alphabet, for the ſake of greater ſimplicity and expedition in learning: the pupil is inſtructed, in the firſt inſtance, to regard P and B as letters whoſe power, in pronunciation, is nearly ſimilar; C, Q, K, and G, are, in like manner, regarded as characters of the ſame family, and between which it is not worth while at firſt to make any eſſential diſtinction; the ſame is repreſented between F and V, M and N, S and Z; by which means the initiating conſonants for the deafly-dumb pupil are reduced from nineteen to about ſeven or eight only, the powers and characters of which, being few in number, and all of them widely diſtinct from each other, may be eaſily explained and comprehended. In a manner ſomewhat ſimilar, and with equal eaſe, he is taught the ſcience of numbers. The whole ſyſtem is detailed at ſufficient length, and evinces much profound attention to this important ſubject, combined with an uncommon ſhare of ingenuity and contrivance.

'IV. Strictures on the Hermes of Harris, as tranſlated by Thurot. By M. Sicard.'

The Hermes of the late elegant and erudite James Harris, eſq. is ſo well known to the majority of our readers, that the preſent paper need not detain us. The only part of the Hermes tranſlated by M. Thurot, however, is the dialogue on grammar; and of this, again, the only parts examined in the preſent ſtrictures are the firſt and ſecond books, for not a ſyllable is extended to the third. We ſhall only ſay, that, upon the whole, M. Sicard regards the original as an admirable performance, and Thurot's verſion as altogether worthy of it. We learn with pleaſure from the public papers that a new and ſplendid edition of the works of this accompliſhed philologiſt is now in the preſs, under the immediate inſpection of his ſon lord Malmeſbury.

'V. Memoir on the Grammatical Propoſition. By Urbain Domergue.'

This is one of the longeſt papers in the collection. It is preceded by a proem or introduction, in which the author takes a curſory view of the origin of language: its abſolute impoſſibility in a ſtate of ſolitude; its rudeneſs and barbariſm on the firſt congregation of ſociety; its augmentation from the exerciſe of the different paſſions and feelings of mankind; and its conſummation from the legacies of genius, ſenſibility, and a fertile imagination. A diſtinction is here attempted alſo between *grammatiſts* and *grammarians*, which in ſome meaſure reſembles that which has of late been introduced among ourſelves between *philoſophiſts* and *philoſophers*, the former term being applied, in both inſtances, to thoſe who have but a ſhallow and conceited knowledge of the ſubject to which they pretend. We alſo meet with the term *puriſt*, invented, but we think not very happily, to characteriſe the mere verbal critic, or rather quibbler. The memoir next follows, and is divided into four ſections. The firſt treats of the grammatical propoſition, and its conſtituent parts. Every propoſition, in its moſt ſimple form, is ſuppoſed to conſiſt of three diſtinct ideas; the object of judgement, or thing to be decided upon, res judicanda, which is here denominated the *judicand*; the medium of judgement, or thing by which we judge, denominated the *judicator*; and the thing judged of, res judicata, denominated, in conſequence, the *judicat*. To explain this doctrine, the author advances a variety of propoſitions, of which we will ſelect the firſt, viz. '*the roſe is beautiful*:' and, in this inſtance, the ſubſtantive *the roſe* is the *judicand*, or thing to be judged of; the verb *is* forms the *judicator* or medium of judgement; and the term *beautiful* is the *judicat*, the thing judged or decided upon. The judicand we are moreover told is always a ſubſtance, a being, or a thing; the judicator is always the verb *to be*, or ſome one of its modifications; while the judicat is generally an attribute, as large, ſmall, learned, ignorant. This diviſion is not very happy or perſpicuous; our own countryman Locke is far clearer in his definition and ideas, and ought to have been conſulted by M. Domergue, though his name does not once occur in the memoir; nor do we by any means prefer the ſpecies of logic here attempted to be introduced to that of MM. Dumarſais and Beauzée, whoſe theory it is deſigned to ſupercede.

The ſecond ſection is devoted to the analyſis of propoſitions; and purſuing the ſame plan, M. Domergue deſcries three ſeparate propoſitions in the following example, which is the firſt he offers: 'Every virtue is comprehended in juſtice; you are juſt; you are a man of virtue:' and each of theſe three propoſitions he again divides into the three ſegments of judicand, judicator, and judicat; in the ſecond inſtance aſſigning the office of judicator to the term *comprehended*, to which the ex-

preſſion *in juſtice*, to continue his own language, is *an indirect complement* or completion. In the third inſtance his analyſis is the ſame; here *man* is the judicat, and *of virtue* its indirect complement.

The third ſection developes the different kinds of propoſitions. Theſe are divided into four claſſes; the *primordial*, or, as it has hitherto been called by Condillac and other French grammarians, the *principal*; the *completive conjunctive propoſition* (propoſition complétive prochaine); the *completive disjunctive* (complétive éloignée); which two latter have often been denominated incidental propoſitions; and the *propoſition implicit*. The *primordial propoſition* is that which conſtitutes the chief ſubject of a ſentence, and with which it uſually commences; the phraſe *conjunctive complement* is applied to every word neceſſary to the completion of ſome other word to which it appertains; and *disjunctive complement* to any word which may be detached from another with which it is connected, without deſtroying its grammatical ſenſe. The fourth, or *implicit propoſition*, is that which incloſes in itſelf, by its own proper power, the three ſegments of every propoſition, to wit, the judicand, the judicator, and the judicat, without openly expreſſing either of them. It is that which has generally been denominated the *adjunctive* propoſition, as appertaining to ſome other; and in reality means nothing more than the interjection of our Engliſh grammarians—*Ah! my father, I once more behold you.* In this exclamation the implicit propoſition of our author is totally confined to the interjection *Ah!* which implies *I am happy, I am overjoyed.*

Section the fourth gives a general application of the antecedent ſyſtems; and ſelects for this purpoſe Contel's beautiful idyll on a flock of ſheep, as retouched by madame Déſhoulières, and which has previouſly been ſelected for a ſimilar purpoſe by Dumarſais. Upon the whole this is an elaborate and accurate paper, and certainly ſuperior to the grammatical publications which it oppoſes. In many reſpects, however, its diviſions are too trifling and minute, and the reader, inſtead of being enlightened, is eclipſed and bewildered. It is to be followed in ſome future time by an additional memoir on the claſſification of words; but this paper is not yet completed.

'VI. Report on the Fragment of an ancient Monument ſent to the National Inſtitute, by Citizen Axhard, Conſervator of the Muſeum at Marſeilles.'

The committee to whom the preparation of this report was intruſted have laudably diſcharged the duties of their office. The fragment referred to appears to have been, as the committee themſelves imagined, the baſis either of an incenſe cup, or of a quiver of arrows. The inſcription upon it is ΘΕΑ. ΔΙΚΤΤΑ. ΔΗΜΟC. ΜΑΣΣ. and is interpreted by the follow-

ing verſion—'To the Dictyan goddeſs—the people of Marſeilles.' Δικτυα the committee conceive to have been an abbreviation for Δικτυννα, which was unqueſtionably a title of Diana; and, admitting this to be a fact, of which we have ſome doubt, but are prevented by our limits from entering into the argument, the reſt is clear and perſpicuous. The goddeſs Diana was at one period the favourite deity of the Marſeillois:—this is obvious from a variety of paſſages in Strabo and other writers. The ſurname of Dictynna appears to have been beſtowed upon Diana firſt of all in the iſland of Crete; though we do not think ſhe derived it from the idle fable of the nymph Britomartis, referred to by Callimachus in his hymn to this divinity: from Crete the worſhip of this deity paſſed into Phocis in Achaia, and Phocœa in Iönia; and from this latter city it was carried to Marſeilles, the earlier inhabitants of this ſeaport being only a colony of Phocœans.

'VII. Obſervations on Magic, by M. Le Blond.'

It appears aſtoniſhing to the writer of this memoir that magic ſhould ever have been admitted as a ſcience, or accredited by men of liberal education; and more ſo ſtill that philoſophers of the reputation of Bayle and La Bruyère ſhould have ſpoken of it as a ſubject of doubt and probability. He apprehends theſe authors to have heſitated in their determination from the belief which is ſaid to have been given to it by Pythagoras, Empedocles, Democritus, and Plato, who, according to Pliny, undertook long voyages for the expreſs purpoſe of being initiated into its doctrines: and he properly, therefore, inquires into the magic of antiquity, to determine whether it were not a ſcience very different from that which bears the name in modern times.—The magic, he obſerves, of which Plato and other Grecian philoſophers ſpeak, had nothing more for its object than religion and religious myſteries. The word itſelf is deduced from the language of the ancient Perſians, among whom the *magi* ſuſtained preciſely the ſame character as the philoſophers among the Greeks, tha ſages among the Romans, the druids among the Gauls, and the prophets or prieſts among the Egyptians:—in a word, they were the miniſters and depoſitaries of religious knowledge. The ſcience of the magi is reported by Pliny to have been introduced by Zoroaſtres. But who was Zoroaſtres?—and here we meet with a ſimilar attempt to overthrow, or rather to *fabuliſe*, the hiſtory of this Perſian philoſopher, which has lately been made by ſeveral diſtinguiſhed characters of our own country, with reſpect to many of the ancient philoſophers, and almoſt all the ancient heroes of Greece. Upon this ſubject we cannot enter now, but we ſhall ſoon have an opportunity of diſcuſſing it at large, and ſhall probably again revert to this part of the preſent memoir. The original magic of Perſia, however, we

agree with our author, was founded on the relations which actually ſubſiſt between this terreſtrial globe and the heavenly bodies that ſurround it, and, being derived from obſervation and the ſtudy of nature, contained nothing in it contrary to the dictates of reaſon. But after this period the heavenly bodies were peopled with gods; intelligences and genii were ſuppoſed to reſide in the conſtellations: they were imagined, and from intereſted motives the profeſſors of this ſcience began to teach the populace ſo, to poſſeſs an influence over natural events; and horoſcopes were immediately pretended to be calculated, as well with reſpect to whole cities as to individuals. Hence pure and rational magic dwindled into the moſt abſurd and ridiculous ſuperſtition. In proceſs of time magic was divided into theurgy and ſorcery or witchcraft. Theurgy was eſteemed the ſcience of purifying the ſoul, and enabling it to hold an intimate commerce or autopſy with heaven itſelf, and occaſionally with being honoured with the poſſeſſion of miraculous powers. Sorcery or goetic magic was confined to a ſuppoſed commerce with evil dæmons, who never inveſted their votaries with miraculous authorities but to commit miſchief. Both theſe oppoſite ſciences, but eſpecially theurgic magic, appear to have been of high antiquity; yet it was principally towards the third age of the Chriſtian æra that they reſurged with additional ſplendor. Magicians of both kinds were repudiated by Porphyry and Proclus as well as Auguſtin; but it was the ſorceriſts whom they principally anathematiſed; and at this period they began to appropriate the term δαιμων, dæmon, to goetic magic alone, which antecedently hereto was equally applied to good and evil genii.

Among the Greeks and Romans the diviſion of this ſcience was ſomewhat different. In reality it admitted of a variety of branches; but the two principal were *enchantment* and *divination*. The former was uſually performed, firſt, by a *carmen*, or ſtring of words combined in ſome peculiar meaſure which it was unlawful to vary or tranſpoſe; or, ſecondly, by an *incantamentum*, which differed from the carmen or metrical charm, and conſiſted of an inarticulate mutter: the Hebrew ſynonym לחש, as well as the Greek Το γοητυμα, Η γοητεια, equally well expreſs this muttering or *muſſitatio*. The incantamentum was, moreover, always applied to ſome evil tranſaction; but the carmen applied to either good or evil. *Divination* was another grand branch of magic among the ancients, and, though equally deſtitute of foundation, was perhaps of more extenſive influence. It determined by oracles, the entrails of beaſts, and frequently by caſting lots; and abſurd as this laſt mode of deciſion more particularly muſt appear, it is reported by Cicero, Suetonius, and many others, to have been often employed on the moſt important events, and confided in with the moſt im-

plicit reliance. Upon the whole, this is a well-written and agreeable paper; and those who wish for a fuller account of the history and science of magic may consult the more voluminous and elaborate work of M. Auberive upon this subject.

'VIII. Epistle against Celibacy, by M. Ducis.'

Those who have an indifferent opinion of the morality at present professed in France would do well to peruse this poetic production, which is founded upon many of the best principles of religion and virtue, and recommends a conduct which cannot but produce happiness in every state. The poetry is always easy, and often bold and nervous. In a short poem like the present, dedicated to ethic subjects, we cannot however but protest against the impropriety of filling up whole lines with the names of persons alone. In epic poetry such a kind of metrical catalogue may occasionally be allowed, but we cannot admit the necessity of introducing it in the present case:

'Déja sont descendus Agamemnon, Ulysse,
Achille, Menelas, et Teucer, et Nestor.'

And again, shortly afterwards,

'Priam, Hécube, Hector, Cassandre, Polyxène,
Pour ta cause égorgés, ou mourant dans leur chaîne.'

The remainder of the poetical contribution consists of an 'Ode to Enthusiasm,' and the first canto of a poem entitled 'The Vigil of Parnassus,' by M. Le Brun; the 'Trial of the Senate of Capua' versified from Livy, the 'Hospital for Fools,' a Persian tale designed to succeed the 'One Thousand and one Nights,' and the 'Miller of Sans-Souci,' by M. Andrieux; two fables by M. Monvel the elder; and two, containing advice from an old man to young people, by M. Lemonnier. In all these we meet with nothing worthy of particular notice: the general character of the poetry is ease and sprightliness, but it seldom rises to superiority of merit. The 'Ode to Enthusiasm,' and the 'Hospital for Fools,' have afforded us the greatest entertainment; the latter is compiled in a vein of genuine humour; and the former, although too frequently bombast or prosaic, has occasionally a bold and dignified flight. Such is the comparison of the fire of genius to a comet, which to the vulgar appears deviating in its course from the common laws of nature, and big with conflagration and ruin to the celestial vault, but whose apparent disorder to the sage who has studied it exhibits an harmonious effort to people the desert part of the heavens with additional systems. And such also is the following comparison of the same power:

'Tel on voit, dans l'empire aride
Des fils basanés de Memnon,

Le Nil, de ſon berceau liquide,
S'échapper ſans gloire et ſans nom ;
Du haut des rocs ſes flots jailliſſent,
E quelque temps s'enſeveliſſent
Parmi des gouffres ignorés ;
Mais tout-à-coup à la lumière
Il renaît pour Memphis entière,
Et ſes flots en ſont adores.'

So where the ſun his torrid flame
O'er Memnon's tawny children flings,
Th 'inglorious Nile, devoid of name,
Firſt from his liquid cradle ſprings :
From rock to rock his wild waves bound—
And, tumbling oft down gulfs profound,
His ſteps are traced no more :
Yet ſoon, where Memphis ſpreads her ſway,
A countleſs flood he meets the day,
And countleſs realms adore.

The daring uſe of the word *precipitate*, in the following couplet of the ſame ode, we cannot approve of :—it is as incorrect as it is bold.

' Et Montgolfier, fuyant la terre,
Se *précipite* dans les cieux.'

And from earth Montgolfier driven,
Precipitates himſelf to heaven.

(To be continued.)

Annales de Chymie. Vol. XXXI.

Annals of Chemiſtry. (Continued from Vol. XXIX. New Arr. p. 515.)

AS we approach the preſent period, we ſhall occaſionally indulge ourſelves with a ſomewhat fuller account of papers, which offer diſcoveries, if not entirely new, yet little known ; and ſhall, as uſual, omit the notice of Engliſh works, or the caſual glances at the labours of the chemiſts of this or other kingdoms, unleſs they afford a promiſe of new and important information.

The firſt article is by M. Vauquelin, entitled 'Reflexions on the Decompoſition of Muriat of Soda by Oxyd of Lead.' We know that the former is decompoſed by the latter, but the mode in which this is effected is little known. The theories hitherto adduced, to account for the effect, are proved to be trifling ; and our author, in his examinations of the facts, by

new experiments, ſhows that the litharge becomes a muriat of lead with an exceſs of oxyd; that cauſtic alkalis do not decompoſe this ſalt, but diſſolve it only; and that the litharge decompoſes common ſalt, in conſequence of the affinity of the muriat of lead for the oxyd. The exceſs of oxyd communicates a yellow colour to the muriat of lead thus produced, renders it almoſt inſoluble in water, and unites with the nitrous acid, leaving the common metallic neutral, or in the ſimple union of the lead with the muriatic acid. The oxyd of lead, therefore, decompoſes common ſalt by a double affinity, viz. by the united attractions of the oxyd for the muriatic acid, and of the muriat of lead for an exceſs of oxygen. This evinces why ſo much litharge is required to ſeparate the ingredients of the muriat of ſoda, ſince a large proportion of the oxygen is required to form the oxydated metallic ſalt.

M. Scherer's miſcellaneous communications ſcarcely offer an intereſting remark. He ſpeaks of lime aſſuming a cryſtalline form in the hands of M. Trommſdorf; of M. Steinhauſer's inquiry into the influence of the different gaſes on magnetiſm; on the ſmell of nitrous acid on breaking ſugar*, which he explains from its attracting part of the oxygen of the air, leaving the azote and oxygen in due proportions to form this acid; and on the works of M. Bucholz; but does not enlarge on either ſubject.

M. Taffaert has communicated an intereſting memoir on the Juices (Séves) of different Trees, viz. the Ulmus Campeſtris, Fagus Sylveſtris, Carpinus Sylveſtris, Betula Alba, and the Mulberry Tree, collected at different periods. The firſt contains a large proportion of acetite of pot-aſh, a much leſs quantity of vegetable matter, and a ſmall proportion of carbonat of lime. The fluid, collected at a ſubſequent period, contained a much ſmaller quantity of ſalts and a greater of vegetable matter. We ſhall add our author's remarks on this ſubject.

'It were to be wiſhed that numerous obſervations would prove that theſe proportions were inverted, as the vegetable advances to perfection. We might hence conclude that the acetite of pot-aſh and the carbonat of lime were decompoſed by the vital action of the vegetable, and that their carbone and hydrogen aſſiſted in the compoſition of the vegetable matter.' This our author thinks is ſupported 'by the wood and bark of the elm containing a leſs proportion of thoſe ſalts than its fluids.' By longer continuance either in a vegetating ſtate or that of reſt in a phial, the vegetable matter becomes frozen, and at laſt of an alkaline nature. Hence, in the pro-

* On examination we have found this ſmell very diſtinguiſhable.

greſs, the acids are deſtroyed, and the alkali only remains, which is often obvious in the diſeaſes of the tree. The juices of the beech are more compounded, conſiſting of an acid in a ſeparate ſtate, a calcareous ſalt, an alkaline ſalt, the gallic acid, the tanning principle, and a mucous extractive matter. Thus it appears that the beech may be ſucceſsfully employed by the tanner. The other juices contain occaſionally a ſeparate acid, different neutrals, and an extractive matter: that of the carpinus afforded a ſmall proportion of copper, that of the betula alba a colouring matter, that of the mulberry tree nitrat of pot-aſh, as well as acetite of pot-aſh.

M. Chaptal's account of the method of fertiliſing the mountains in the Cevennes is curious, and ſhows how neceſſity will, at times, render the moſt infertile regions productive, though, perhaps, the exertions of theſe mountaineers are not equalled by the patient induſtry of the Chineſe in ſimilar ſituations. The inhabitants of the Cevennes raiſe walls at the bottoms of the mountains acroſs the termination of the gullies, which ſuffer the water to eſcape, and retain the ſoil. Parallel ones are erected at different heights; and thus nature forms the hanging gardens which ſupply the mountaineer with the food which his attentive induſtry has ſo juſtly merited. The receding ſtrata of the calcareous rocks are by a ſimilar method formed into various plats of a ſmaller ſize.

An abſtract of two very extenſive memoirs on the Urine are contained in the XXXIſt and XXXIId volume. The firſt immediately follows the article of M. Chaptal juſt noticed; but we ſhall examine the whole. It is however with regret that we obſerve little eſſential or uſeful information added to what Rouelle and others had before communicated; but it is probable that the ſubject has been already exhauſted. The minute ſcrutiny of modern chemiſtry has indeed diſcovered many ingredients of little importance: the principal, however, is ſtyled by our author the 'urée;' we ſhall call it the eſſential ſalt of urine. The newly-diſcovered ingredients are phoſphat of magneſia, urat of ammonia, formed during the decompoſition of the urine, albumen, and jelly; oxalic acid, which is chiefly a morbid production, and a ſmall quantity of flinty matter, which occurs but rarely. The benzoic acid, which is traced chiefly in children, was diſcovered, in a great meaſure, by the younger Rouelle.

'The particular matter of urine, to which its characteriſtic properties are owing, and which is its moſt eſſential ingredient, as imparting the peculiar colour, ſmell, and taſte, rendering it capable of being converted into ammonia and into carbonic or acetous acids, forms $\frac{12}{25}$ of its ingredients. Rouelle has miſtaken it for a ſoapy extract; but to this is owing the

almoſt complete cryſtalliſation of the urine, when evaporated to the conſiſtence of a ſyrup; its ſolid and cryſtalline form, on adding concentrated nitrous acid, as well as the modified cryſtalliſations of the muriats of ſoda and ammonia, where the forms of the cryſtals are in ſome degree converted. This animal matter, which we call urée (eſſential ſalt of urine), will be the ſubject of a ſeparate memoir, deſigned as a continuation of the preſent:—it is highly intereſting to phyſiology and the practice of medicine.'

The ſecond memoir, which we ſhall now purſue, occurs in the XXXIId volume: it is confined to the examination of the eſſential ſalt of urine, and entitled 'A Second Memoir on the Natural, Chemical, and Medical Hiſtory of the Urine, particularly on the peculiar Subſtance to which its Properties are owing.' The hiſtory of the labours of former chemiſts on this ſubject is very intereſting; and the particular examination of the urée, by M. Fourcroy, diſplays all the minute addreſs of a moſt able chemiſt: to follow it cloſely would not be intereſting to the general reader, ſo that we ſhall give conciſely the ſubſtance of our author's concluſions. Our knowledge, however, of this ſubſtance, he remarks, is only commencing; we have yet attained its analyſis alone, and muſt, at a future period, examine the compoſitions formed with this ſalt and various other ſubſtances. Its more obvious properties we need not enlarge on. It is ſufficient to remark, that, with different proportions of water, urine of almoſt every kind may be imitated. The eſſential ſalt is eaſily deſtroyed by a violent heat, producing a large proportion of carbonat of ammonia, amounting to more than $\frac{2}{3}$ of its weight, leaving but a ſmall proportion of coal, with about $\frac{1}{6}$ of muriat of ammonia. It muſt, however, be obſerved, that this ſalt is not, in recent urine, of an alkaline, but rather of an acid nature. The ammonia is formed by delay, and during the decompoſition; ſo that, after ſome time, all the ſalts are ammoniacal, and the urée deliqueſces rapidly on expoſure to the atmoſphere. It is alſo highly fermentable when mixed with animal gluten.

In its own nature it contains a larger proportion of azote than any other fluid of the human body; but the modern chemiſt will neceſſarily remark that this is ſaying only what Boerhaave and others have formerly obſerved, that the urine is highly animaliſed, for in the proportion of azote conſiſts the chief diſtinction between vegetable and animal ſubſtances. Our author approaches to a view ſomewhat more comprehenſive, when he remarks that the lungs are the emunctories of the carbonic acid, the liver of the hydrogen, and the kidneys of the azote; but even in this he ſteps forward only in the farther and more complete analyſis of fluids, which, from the

time of Dr. Hales and Dr. M'Clurg, have been known to be diſcharged from theſe different organs. Perhaps, when he compares the analyſis of the calculus with that of the eſſential ſalt of urine, he may add to our knowledge, and we ſhall then ſee that the diſeaſe is owing to a defect of animaliſation, for the acid of the calculus is not changed to an azotic compound by the animal proceſs. This is no more than the ſagacious and comprehenſive mind of Cullen has already anticipated.—But to return to the particulars of the analyſis.

Of 217 parts of the true urinary matter, 200 are changed into carbonat of ammonia, ten are diſengaged in the form of carbonated hydrogen, and ſeven are left in that of a coaly reſiduum. When reduced to their component parts, 100 parts of the eſſential ſalt of urine contain 39.5 of oxygen, 32.5 of azote, 14.7 of carbone, and 13.3 of hydrogen; but about eleven parts of the oxygen and two of hydrogen are employed in the compoſition of the water in the ſalt; ſo that the azote is the moſt copious ingredient.

In the application of theſe remarks to medicine and the arts, we ſee nothing that was not known before theſe experiments were inſtituted,—not even a hint which will contribute to elucidate a fact either in phyſiology or practice. That the thick mucous urine is owing to an ammoniacal ſalt formed by the retention of the excrementitious fluid in the bladder, which precipitates the albumen, is not true. This diſcharge is from the mucous glands, in conſequence of irritation; and that it is not owing to the cauſe ſuppoſed by our author, is ſufficiently obvious, from its occurring moſt commonly when the irritation is frequent, and the quantity to be diſcharged ſmall; of courſe when there is no accumulation in the bladder, and no time to form ammoniacal ſalts. It occurs too in calculous caſes, when the eſſential ſalt of urine is of an acid nature.

The next article we meet with is alſo continued in another part of the volume, and will detain us ſomewhat longer than uſual. It is entitled 'An Abſtract of the Procès-verbal of Experiments made in the Polytechnic School in the Year 1797 and 1798, on the Combuſtion of the Diamond,' by M. Guyton. The vaſt and comprehenſive mind of Newton ſaw in the diamond a combuſtible ſubſtance, in conſequence of its peculiar refraction; but few would have expected this very brilliant body to be what it appears, in conſequence of analyſis, a kind of charcoal, with a larger proportion of oxygen. The improbability that a ſubſtance with a leſs proportion of oxygen ſhould be more readily inflammable than one with a larger proportion, was an objection which occurred to our author. In reality, however, the readineſs of combuſtion conſiſts rather in the intimate union of the inflammable with

the other ingredients than in its quantity; and many inſtances occur, particularly that of plumbago, where the rapidity of combuſtion is by no means in proportion to the quantity of oxygen. Thus alſo turf, which burns feebly without any preparation, is a ſtrong combuſtible when coaked: it is then, as our author obſerves, reduced to the firſt degree of oxydation, when the oxygen in ſyntheſis is with difficulty combined, and readily as well as rapidly ſeparated.

The product of the combuſtion of the diamond, or of its combination with oxygen to the point of ſaturation, is carbonic acid without a reſiduum. It differs in this from charcoal, as requiring a heat of 2765°, inſtead of 188, for its inflammation; and, inſtead of ſupporting its own inflammation, the continuation of the action of heat is eſſentially neceſſary, as well as a larger proportion of oxygen. There are many bodies in an intermediate ſtate between the diamond and charcoal, particularly the plumbago, the anthracolite of Werner, and coaly reſiduums, difficult to burn, &c.: and theſe have alſo the ſingular property of acting like ſilver in the galvanic battery, an office which neither the diamond nor charcoal can perform. The diamond, in its deoxygenation, aſſumes firſt the colour of lead, and is then in the ſtate of plumbago and anthracolite; then that of charcoal.

It may appear ſingular why the diamond ſhould be of ſuch rare occurrence, ſince its component parts are ſo common. To this no anſwer can be given, but that ſome ſimilar inſtances are to be found. The adamantine ſpar, for inſtance, is as rare as the diamond, though only an aluminous earth; and iron, never found in perfection, has ſcarcely ever been diſcovered in a metallic ſtate.

In ſubſequent experiments the diamond was found to reduce iron to ſteel, by cementation, and even to deoxygenate ſulphur; in fact, it was brought to the ſecond degree of oxygenation, reſembling plumbago, and acted in every experiment like it. Yet, however, ſome doubts may be entertained of the truth of the whole analyſis. The diamond is compared with charcoal; but it is not conſidered that charcoal contains light as an ingredient. Unleſs the flame is carefully confined the coaly nature is deſtroyed, and it is watched during the proceſs with anxious care, for this purpoſe. In the analyſis of the diamond, the ſolar rays, or the ſtrongeſt white heat, is employed; and it is conſidered only as heat: yet if light *be* a chemical body, may it not, in theſe proceſſes, be combined, and thus contribute to bring the foſſil to a ſtate of charcoal. The ſubject, at leaſt, requires a reviſion with theſe views; and we are ſomewhat ſurpriſed that they ſhould have been neglected by a chemiſt of credit and character, whoſe well-earned fame has rendered him particularly conſpicuous in this department.

We return now to the XXXIſt volume; and ſhall, in future, purſue the articles as uſual, in their order. M. Gazeran's obſervations on the treatment of iron ores with coak offer nothing which can intereſt an Engliſh chemiſt, in whoſe country the proceſs recommended is ſo common; and from the ſixteenth volume of Brugnatelli's Annali di Chimica we can extract nothing very intereſting. One of his correſpondents ſpeaks vaguely of the animaliſation of flax by boiling it in lye which had been employed in whitening oyſter-ſhells. A fugitive colour was in this way rendered permanent.

Another memoir of M. Haſſenfratz, on Areömetry, follows. It is on the deſiccation of ſalts, and was ſuggeſted by the different reſults of the experiments of MM. Kirwan, Wenzel, and Bergman, on the proportions of the component parts of different neutrals. The difference, in M. Haſſenfratz' opinion, ariſes from the quantity of water which they ſometimes unavoidably contain; for even exſiccating them in a ſtove is not ſufficient to bring them to a uniform dryneſs. He propoſes therefore to aſcertain the ſpecific gravity of each, when diſſolved in a given or indifferent quantities of water. The ſolid contents are thus eaſily known, and proper allowance may be made for the fluid.

M. Klaproth, in his chemical examination of the ſpinel, a ſpecies of ruby, thinks that it ſhould, from its colour, be rather claſſed among the hyacinths, as it reſembles them, according to the deſcription of Pliny and other ancient authors. Modern cryſtallographers have arranged the true ruby of Pegu among the ſapphires, as a red variety, and made a new genus of the ſpinel. This precious ſtone is of many different colours, all of which ſeem to be owing to iron, in different ſtates: its ſpecific gravity is about 3.580, and its chief ingredients alumine and flint, in the reſpective proportions of .74 and .15.

An abſtract from the report of 'The Methods employed to extract Antimony from its Ores,' by M. Haſſenfratz, follows, but is incapable of abridgment, as well as that which ſucceeds by M. Bouillon Lagrange, viz. 'An Abſtract of Two Reports made to the Society of Emulation at Rouen, on ſome Experiments reſpecting the Conſumption of Wood in Dyers' and other Furnaces, compared with the Conſumption in one of a new Conſtruction.' The ſaving appears almoſt equal to five ſevenths.

M. Scherer's Goſſipings, for they deſerve no better title, in his letter to M. Guyton, ſcarcely furniſh a ſingle ſubject of remark, except to enforce his propoſal, a very uſeful one, of a publication containing the ſynonyms of minerals. The mineralogical dictionary, which we ſome time ſince ſug-

geſted, would anſwer every purpoſe. The Dictionary of Mineralogy, by M. Reuſs, of which an account is given in the ſubſequent article, profeſſing to contain all the mineralogical terms in the German, Latin, French, Swediſh, Daniſh, Ruſſian, and Hungarian languages, will by no means anſwer this purpoſe, and it is alſo incomplete. It is little more than a Latin and German dictionary; in the other branches, the names are few, and the explanations imperfect.

An abſtract of a memoir by M. Felix on the Method of Dyeing, and the Manufacture, &c. of the Red Cottons of Greece (the Adrianople Reds), is intereſting in other views beſides thoſe of the chemiſt. M. Felix's Account of the Commerce of the Levant has appeared in an Engliſh dreſs; but, as we have not yet ſeen that work, we know not whether the little intereſting details of the preſent memoir occur in it. We ſhall not, therefore, paſs it over.

The colour is imparted by the ali-zari, a ſpecies of madder, but only uſed when it has attained a greater age than is allotted to it in Europe, and is dried with greater care. The beauty of the colour conſiſts in the management during its laſt immerſion, in an alkaliſed bath. When the colour has aſſumed its greateſt brilliancy, the dyer immediately withdraws it, and prefers burning his hand to the leaſt delay beyond the moment which he has waited for with the moſt anxious attention.

The principal manufactures of the red ſpun cotton, eſtabliſhed in Greece, are to be met with in Theſſaly, at Baba, Rapſani, Tournavos, Lariſſa, Pharſala, and all the villages on the declivity of Oſſa and Pelion. Theſe mountains may be conſidered as the alembics, that diſtil the vapours which eternally ſurround the head of Mount Olympus, and diſtribute them to the beautiful valleys around. Among theſe, Tempe has always been diſtinguiſhed for its umbrageous trees and limpid ſtreams. The waters, from their purity, are highly proper for the dyer's purpoſe, and they ſupply numerous manufactures, the chief of which is Ambélakia.

Poets have never ſeen Tempe and Olympus in theſe views, which are more intereſting in advanced age than in the enthuſiaſm of youth. Ambélakia is a very flouriſhing ſpot, having trebled its number of inhabitants in the laſt fifteen years; and now contains 4000 ſouls, who are employed wholly in dyeing, and 'live like a ſwarm of bees in a hive.'

'Neither the vices nor the languor of idleneſs are known in this ſpot: the hearts of the Ambélakiates are pure, and their countenances ſerene. Slavery, which blights the harveſts on the banks of the Peneus at their feet, has not aſcended to their cottages. No Turk is permitted to dwell among them; and they are governed, like their anceſtors, by their

own magiſtrates. Twice the furious muſſulmen of Lariſſa, jealous of their eaſe and happineſs, attempted to ſcale the mountains and pillage their habitations: twice they were repelled by crowds, who quitted the vat to aſſume the muſket.

'Every hand, even thoſe of children, is employed in the dye-houſes of Ambélakia; and, while the men dye the cotton, the women prepare and ſpin it. In the whole diſtrict they are not acquainted with the ſpinning-wheel; the work is executed with the ſpindle; and the thread is, of courſe, leſs ſtrong, round, and equable, but more ſoft, ſilky, and tenacious. It is leſs brittle and more durable, bleaches more eaſily, and dyes more completely. It is pleaſing to ſee the women of Ambélakia, each armed with her rock, and goſſiping on the ſeats at their doors;—but the pleaſure is inſtantaneous; on the appearance of a ſtranger, they immediately retire and hide themſelves; ſhowing, like Galatea, in their precipitate flight, their wiſh to fly and to be ſeen:

'Et fugit ad ſalices, et ſe cupit ante videri.'

'The eye can only catch a glance of theſe women; but it ſees with admiration the bold and elegant Grecian ſhapes, which have ſerved as models for ſome of the moſt beautiful ſtatues in the world.'

'For my own part, I ſhall never forget what I ſaw in my firſt journey to Ambélakia and its neighbourhood—A numerous population, living wholly on the produce of its manufactures, and diſplaying, among the rocks of Oſſa, the intereſting union of a family of friends and brothers; the charming inſtitution, baniſhed by the Jeſuits to the foreſts of Paraguay, tranſplanted, as by enchantment, to the precipices and the valleys of Tempe; the ancient Greek prejudices ſubdued; the taſte for trifling ſubtleties replaced by a love of ſolid ſtudies; national vanity checked by generous ſentiments; every grand and liberal idea flouriſhing on a ſoil devoted, during twenty centuries, to ſlavery; the original Greek character ſprouting with its former luxuriance in the midſt of the caverns and torrents of Pelion;—in a word, all the virtues and all the talents of the ancients riſing again in a corner of modern Greece.'

The reſt of the memoir conſiſts of commercial details, which will not be intereſting; and, in the reports of D'Arcet, Deſmarets, and Chaptal, on this ſubject, we find that the art has already been introduced, by Grecian workmen, into France, where the methods have been ſimplified, and the colours improved.

Chromate of iron has been diſcovered in the department of

Var; and its analyſis is communicated by M. Taſſaert. It appears an irregular maſs, of a deep brown, and metallic ſplendor. It is of a mean hardneſs, and its ſpecific gravity 4·0326. With the blow-pipe it melts with difficulty; and, when fuſed with borax, aſſumes a dirty green hue. It contains .63 of chronic acid, and about .36 of oxyd of iron.

An account and abſtract of a new elementary work in chemiſtry follows. It is entitled 'Chymie Optomatique; or, the Art of learning this Science with Eaſe, by the Aſſiſtance of Tables, Figures, and ſymbolical Characters, ſo as to ſeize at a Glance the Relations of the Compoſition and Decompoſition of Bodies.' The firſt part, on minerals, is alone publiſhed; and we are not ſo much intereſted by the account of M. Fourcroy, as to induce us to enlarge on the ſubject, or recommend the work. The author is M. F. G. Courrejolles.

M. Guyton's 'New Enquiries into the Affinities of Earths for each other, in the dry or humid Way,' are in ſome meaſure new. They were ſuggeſted, he remarks, by obſerving that flint and lime, though infuſible ſeparately, yet, when united, melt into a maſs, whoſe ingredients are not to be ſeparated but by chemical agents. The manufacture of porcelain would however have offered the ſame leſſon. He firſt examines their action in the humid way, and finds that earths diſſolved in water alkalis, or the ſame acid, according as each is capable of ſolution by the different menſtrua, ſhow a power which tends to an union, by ſeparating them from their reſpective menſtrua; and, according to the laws of elective attraction, is capable in one, and impotent with reſpect to the other. Thus barytes and ſtrontian poſſeſs very different powers of attraction for lime; and there is a ſtriking conſiſtency in the reſult of experiments with the ſame earths united to different menſtrua. Of ten experiments with earthy muriats, in four only were the ſigns of repulſion evident; and in two of theſe it was doubtful. In the dry way, lime, barytes, and ſtrontian, reſemble alkalis, and exhibit a ſtrong attraction for flint and alumine; ſo that lime ſeparates flint from pot-aſh, and joins alumine at the inſtant when the ſulphuric acid abandons it. Theſe earths act on oils, ſoaps, and animal matters, like alkalis, but differ from them in many reſpects, chiefly in the inſolubility of the compounds. In general, the union of earths reſembles ſtrongly that of metals: neither ſeems the diſſolvant, but they mutually attract each other.

M. Prieur's 'Hiſtorical Account of the Invention of, and firſt Attempts to form, Parachutes,' conſiſts of the republication of a letter of Montgolfier, where this idea is clearly explained, and followed by a minute detail of the conſtruction, and its foundation.

M. Deyeux' 'Report concerning M. Le Blanc's Ideas re-

ſpecting Nickel' are deſigned only to recommend a further inquiry into the ſubject. M. Le Blanc has adduced ſome experiments and obſervations, to ſhow that nickel is not a diſtinct metal, without pretending, however, to decide the queſtion.

The 'Obſervations on the Flint which exiſts in the Epidermis of ſome Reeds' are extracted from Mr. Nicholſon's Journal. It is ſingular to obſerve M. Guyton's difficulty in explaining the term 'bonnet-cane:' he is not aware that it is the cane employed in making bonnets. We are ſomewhat ſurpriſed that no chemiſt has noticed the flint in writing-paper, which ſo quickly deſtroys the fine point of a pen.

M. Haſſenfratz has continued his memoir on areometry, by an 'Enquiry into the apparent Anomalies in the Denſities of different Proportions of Water, and of Salt in a ſolid State; and into ſome of the Appearances of Lime, Alumine, and Nitre.' Theſe anomalies were noticed in the former number, where it was obſerved that the denſities of ſolid ſalt did not follow the law of the proportion of water combined, but were ſometimes above and ſometimes below the mean denſities. The anomalies reſpecting quick-lime are owing, 1. To the denſity of the lime; 2. That of the combined water; 3. The affinity of the lime for the water, and the ſtate of the combination. Each of theſe cauſes are diſtinctly explained; and, in other ſalts, the anomalous reſults are found to depend, 1. On the diminution of the volume of the mixtures, when, on cooling, they abſorb caloric; 2. On the augmentation of the volume, when caloric is ſeparated; 3. The different denſity of the ſame ſubſtance, when in maſs and in powder.

'An Account of a Memoir, by M. Fabroni, on the Vinous, Putrid, and Acetous Fermentations, and on the Formation of Æther, with Reflexions on the Nature and Product of theſe Proceſſes.' The Italian philoſopher was ſent to Paris to ſettle finally the buſineſs of weights and meaſures, and of courſe received with great reſpect. His memoir was read to the Philomathic Society, and is highly praiſed by M. Fourcroy, who, in his 'Reflexions,' deſtroys, however, all the leading poſitions. The principal points which M. Fabroni inſiſts upon are, that fermentation is only a ſlow effervеſcence during the decompoſition of a body, which is, as uſual, effected by a re-agent; and that alcohol is the production of fire, and does not exiſt in wine. The Florentine phyſician ſupports, however, his doctrine with great plauſibility; and it deſerves more attention than Fourcroy has afforded, who nevertheleſs compenſates for this deficiency by exuberant praiſes.

Voyage en Suiſſe et en Italie, fait avec l'Armée de Réſerve, par V. D. M. Auteur de l'Anglais Coſmopolite, employé a l'Etat-Major-Général de la dite Armée. 8vo. Paris.

Journey to Switzerland and Italy, in Company with the Army of Reſerve, by V. D. M. Author of the Engliſh Coſmopolite, attached to the General Staff of the ſaid Army. Imported by De Boffe.

"WHY do you not add an epithet to travels?" ſays a friend of the author. "You have your choice—Philoſophical, picturesque, ſentimental, curious, intereſting, romantic, inſtructive, moral, and amuſing, are at your diſpoſal. Your only difficulty muſt conſiſt in the determination; and a good choice would decide your ſucceſs. Why then do you not determine?" —'Becauſe I lay it down as a principle, to permit others to judge of a book. Every reader poſſeſſes this as an inconteſtable right; and the public, not myſelf, muſt claſs my productions. Nothing is ſo aſſuming as to pretend that your work is philoſophical, moral, or inſtructive;—nothing leſs determinate than picturesque or romantic: the inventor of ſentimental travelling has alone a right to call his journey a "ſentimental" one. Beſides, what is philoſophic or amuſing to one is not ſo to another; and to add an epithet is to praiſe my work, ſince a philoſophic book is neceſſarily good.'

Such are the author's reaſons for calling his work ſimply a *Journey*; but were he to have added an epithet, it would have been ſentimental, for Sterne is his idol and his model. Yet he does not follow him ſervilely: lively and good-humoured, his remarks are often entertaining; and, under the guiſe of levity, he ſeems to have ſtudied, and to reaſon, with preciſion. With all his fondneſs for Sterne, and J. Jacques, he is not inſenſible of their faults. We ſhall copy a ſhort paſſage to this effect.

'Buffon will always be an honour to France; but we Frenchmen are conſtantly in extremes. We ſtyle Buffon another Ariſtotle—He is Buffon, and that is ſufficient. With our rage for compariſons, we often miſs our aim:—leave the Henriade in its place, it will always be eſtimable; raiſe it to a level with the Æneid, and it loſes its value.'

His friend, father Jerom, is an amuſing companion; and the patron is, if not the firſt conſul himſelf, a man of diſtinguiſhed rank in the army of reſerve. When this army was in motion, every journal (he ſays) was loud in proclaiming its power and its influence. It was to make peace or to conquer. Our traveller then determined to join this army, as a ſpectator, as a companion—himſelf, as his motto tells us, 'ſolus in turbâ.' His object then was to travel with an army, to paſs the defiles of the Jura, the Valais, &c. with a numerous hoſt; to be

puſhed forward by one, and checked by another; to run when he wiſhed to walk, and to creep when he wiſhed to fly; to be obliged to haſten when he wanted to hear the roar of a torrent or contemplate a ravine; to experience a thouſand contradictions, and to ſubmit to all voluntarily as a party of pleaſure. We can truly add with him—'this is indeed a new tract.'

To follow a journey of this kind is to purſue an *ignis fatuus*; for, though we think the author not without abilities equal to a more laboured performance, our information is chiefly derived from the notes. Indeed, in many places, he appears to greater advantage when cloſely examined than would be credited from his lively deſultory manner. The old man of Jura is an intereſting object, as well as the ſcenery in which he meets our ſentimental traveller: from the feſtoon of portraits with which the preſent journey is adorned, this may perhaps be advantageouſly ſelected.

'We began to paſs elevated mountains and narrow defiles to arrive at Clairvaux, a melancholy reſidence, where a rivulet flows which I ſhould have miſtaken for a torrent had I never ſeen the Alps. We arrived in the evening at Creuſé, where we were ſurrounded on every ſide by barren rocks, on which with difficulty a few ſhrubs drew a ſcanty nouriſhment. The horizon is bounded by the chains of Jura, crowned with firs and larches. Nothing is more gloomy than the proſpect, ſince the harſh forms and funereal hues of theſe trees abſorb the light, and throw a veil on all nature. I eſcaped from my travelling companions, and deſcended along the ravines, till I arrived at a brook whoſe ſtream was ſomewhat enlarged by drains, to enable it to turn a ſaw-mill. I went ſtill lower, and ſeemed almoſt at the centre of the earth. Around me roſe mountains whoſe points were loſt in the clouds. All nature was ſilent, and the bird of night was only heard uttering its mournful ſound. Over my head hung ſome ſuſpended rocks, checked in their fall. At the bottom of the deepeſt ravine, near the bed of a torrent long ſince dry, I yielded to a gloom, in uniſon with the ſcenery around, and contemplated an object whoſe loſs I ſhall long lament. Feeling a ſudden faintneſs, occaſioned by the frightful ſolitude in which I was, I invoked the dear ſhade, conſtantly preſent to my thoughts, and wiſhed that, at a diſtance from mankind, in a ſpot where no one ſeemed to have penetrated, I might again converſe with her. I called her, and even echo did not anſwer my complaints. I wiſhed that the tales of our nurſery were not merely fables. Alas! it is in vain. I have before obſerved, that, when we leave this world, we cannot ever return to it, even to comfort thoſe whom we have left in affliction.

'I yielded to grief, when, in the midſt of my reverie, I was

interrupted by the ſtrangeſt queſtion that was ever aſked in ſuch a place and in ſuch circumſtances.—"Will *he* ſoon paſs this way?" ſaid a voice partly broken. I thought myſelf in a dream—looked around, and perceived no one. At laſt, led by the ſound of the ruſtling firs near me, I ſaw, a little above me, a venerable old man, accuſtomed for many years to range the mountains in ſearch of herbs, which he ſuppoſed to poſſeſs ſome virtue, and of wood to enliven his fire. This queſtion reſtored me to the living, to myſelf, and terminated my travels in imaginary regions. My ideas took a new courſe. Whence had fame brought the name which juſt ſtruck my ears? I was certain it had occurred in the moſt ſolitary ſpot my eyes ever beheld: in all my journeys over the Alps I had ſeen nothing more detached, more wild—I was almoſt in the bowels of the earth.—'You know him then?' ſaid I, to the old man. He had heard of him. "It was *he* who conquered Italy; but it is *he*," added the veteran, with a ſtronger voice and gayer air, "it is *he* who will reſtore us peace."—This hope enlivened him; this hope made him ſmile, and conſoled him with the expectation of ſeeing his children happy. 'With how important a miſſion,' ſaid I, 'is *he* charged. The laurels he gathered at Lodi are trifling in my eyes, in compariſon of the olive-branch which this old man has pictured in his hand on his return from Italy. He thus appeared more glorious in the mouth of the good man than in all the French gazettes.'

We ſhall only add, that the veteran was ninety-nine years old, had ſerved in the wars of Louis XIV. and was an enthuſiaſt of his victories.

Geneva attracted much of our traveller's attention; and his remarks on this ſingular republic (it was once a republic) ſhow more penetration than his general gaiety—we had almoſt ſaid levity—would, in our eſtimation, have allowed him. He viſits the ſame city on his return; and we ſhall copy from the former and latter parts, ſomewhat promiſcuouſly, his remarks on Geneva and its moſt diſtinguiſhed characters.

Jean Jacques is our author's hero, and he was anxious to know in what light he was conſidered where 'no one is a prophet.'

'I at firſt ſaw in the Lyceum,' he obſerves, 'a large ſquare column, ſurmounted with a buſt, which reſembled no one, and read the following inſcription—"A Jean Jacques Rouſſeau, le Peuple de Genève, le 23 Décembre, 1793."—I thought only of the reſpectful feelings which had raiſed this monument, and was examining it with a religious attention, when a Geneveſe drew me from my own reflexions by communicating his. "This column has the appearance of a chimney, and the buſt on the top exactly repreſents the unfortunate little being who

weeps it, preciſely at the moment when he has finiſhed his painful taſk by the little ſong which the women, children, and ſome idle loungers have the cruelty to exact." This was only ridicule; and, as it is eaſy to make the beſt things ridiculous, the ſneer produced little effect on me.'—Paſſing to the inſcription; "The people of Geneva! It is falſe. A very ſmall party, compoſed of the moſt eager of thoſe who wiſhed to pleaſe the French, to whom Rouſſeau is dear, were anxious to pay a compliment to this nation."—This obſervation, ſomewhat more ſerious, made an impreſſion on me. "In every view," he added, "this monument is pitiful, and the following anecdote will give you a true idea of Geneveſe œconomy. The artiſt who was applied to for a deſign gave one: it was too dear: the ſecond was rejected for the ſame reaſon; the third was not ſuitable becauſe it would coſt too much; and this is the fourth, which at leaſt will not ruin the government."—'I ſhould rather think, for the honour of your country, that, ſuitable to the genius of Jean Jacques, they wiſhed the monument to partake of his ſimplicity.'—The reply, "*you do us too much honour*," pronounced with irony, ſhowed that the Geneveſe was not of my opinion.

'I ſpoke of Jean Jacques to others. According to the women, he was an abominable ſeducer: according to ſome men, he had deſtroyed the organiſation of ſociety. "You forget the Social Contract," ſay they.—'You do not recollect,' ſaid I, in reply, 'the government of Poland. Great man! envy dwells on your errors, and no one is a prophet in his own country.' At laſt, when preſented to M. S. I conſulted him. "We conſider," ſaid he, "Jean Jacques as one of the beſt and moſt eloquent writers. With reſpect to ſtyle and ſentiment, his glory is unimpeached." He enlarged on his imagination, and paſſed on to what did him more honour,—his Emilius. "Our nation is wholly changed ſince the publication of that work. We have adopted his method of education—our mothers ſuckle—ſwadling cloaths are unknown—and we have neither rickety nor deformed children."—This is the real êulogy of Jean Jacques.'

We meant to have enlarged on Geneva; but our extracts have exceeded their expected length, and we ſhall ſtep on to Italy without any delay even with the recluſes of Mount Ailly, an intereſting little epiſode, or the more philoſophical diſquiſitions reſpecting the crêtins and the goîtres. The nineteenth chapter, entitled 'the battle of Marengo,' will furniſh the only other extracts that we can admit. The introduction is curious.

'Heaven preſerve thoſe who have a river to croſs from paſſing it ſurrounded by an army! What a crowd! What

cries! A numerous hoſt—ſervants with loaded horſes—all crowded into a flying-bridge, which can carry only a limited number. After fifteen hours' waiting, our turn came, and we had the mortification to ſee a box of papers and effects, intruſted to us, fall into the Po. The time employed in recovering it prevented us from reaching Voguerra before midnight—a night which I ſhall always recollect; a night of falſe alarms, terrifying ſtories, myſteriouſly circulated—a complete defeat—a battle loſt—generals killed: nothing that could diſtreſs and diſcourage the French was forgotten. At dawn of day we looked on each other, to catch from our neighbours ſome gleams of hope; but every one remained motionleſs and mute; each animated by a ſimilar curioſity.

'The events of the battle are well known; and I ſhall only mention ſome intereſting circumſtances *which perhaps it would be more prudent to conceal.* The morning after our arrival reports of peace were in every mouth, and we were witneſſes of the intereſting emotions which theſe reports occaſioned. The victory, the reſtoration of eleven fortreſſes, the armiſtice, coſt us dear. He who contributed to gain the battle, who, by his talents and probity, might have *repaired the wrongs of others and made his nation amiable, in a country which wanted that impreſſion*—Deſſaix, was no more.

'The rout of the French was complete for ſome time, and the reports which we heard the former evening were not without foundation, but were in part owing to ſervants and ſuttlers, who, while flying, did not loſe their preſence of mind ſufficiently to forget pillaging, and profiting by the diſorder which they occaſioned. A ſuperior officer, whoſe name I need not mention, ſeeing the rout, aſked, with much emotion, if he ſhould not order a retreat. The other, who preſerved all his coolneſs, replied,—that he was only aſtoniſhed at *his* confuſion, and that an officer of his rank ſhould preſerve his recollection.

'The next morning, dining with an Auſtrian officer who was at the battle, I found that the army of Melas, inſtead of profiting by their firſt advantage, lay down, and, forgetting to purſue us, were eating their dinner when the French returned to the charge.

'General Melas ſaid, in the preſence of ſome ſuperior officers, that what conſoled him was being beaten by one whom he conſidered as the greateſt warrior in Europe.—One of the officers replied with *naïveté*, that he ſuppoſed the general was not ſpeaking of him.'

On the whole, we have been highly entertained by this lively

writer; and the notes, as we have ſaid, are of a ſuperior kind. Some 'pieces juſtificatives' are added, and, in truth, they ſeem much wanted. I ſhall conclude, ſaid a preacher once, with ſome reflexions on the whole:—It is unneceſſary, replied a wag: you will be *reflected* on ſufficiently.

Hiſtoire Naturelle des Poiſſons, par le Citoyen Cepede, Membre de l'Inſtitut National, et Profeſſeur au Muſéum d'Hiſtoire Naturelle. Paris.

The Natural Hiſtory of Fiſhes, by Citizen Cepede, Member of the National Inſtitute, &c. 3 *Vols.* 4*to.* Imported by De Boffe.

THOUGH we have been ſome time in poſſeſſion of the firſt volume of this work, we have delayed our account of it, in expectation of receiving the two others which were ſaid to be ready for the preſs. We can wait no longer however; but muſt announce the work, and give ſome analyſis of, at leaſt, the preliminary diſcourſe on the nature of fiſhes, and of the author's claſſification.

When the ſplendid work of Buffon was ſketched in the outline, it was deſigned to comprehend the whole of animated nature: but he was ſoon obliged to exclude the white-blooded animals and fiſhes, and confine his labours to quadrupeds, birds, and minerals. M. Cepede purpoſed to continue the plan; and, having already publiſhed the natural hiſtory of ſerpents in two volumes, formerly noticed at ſome length in our journal, now proceeds to marine animals.

The inhabitants of the ocean and rivers have received a comparatively imperfect and inconſiderable ſhare of the phyſiologiſt's or the naturaliſt's attention. Their animal œconomy is little known; though their anatomy, by the labours of Dr. Monro, has been greatly illuſtrated. In a ſyſtematical view, Linné, diſſatisfied with the attempts of his friend Artedi, publiſhed, in the two laſt editions of the Syſtem of Nature, a new arrangement, which is at leaſt incomplete, and found by no means co-extenſive with later diſcoveries. Braſſonet's Icthyologia was a work of promiſe, but has proceeded only a little way; and the magnificent ſyſtem of Block, too extenſive for many naturaliſts, is confined to a few hands. It is publiſhing, however, in a humbler form. Much room remained, therefore, for the labours of the icthyologiſt; and M. Cepede's talents and opportunities are too well known to leave any reaſon to fear diſappointment.

The claſſification of fiſhes has been found peculiarly difficult, from an unuſual ſource, viz. the determining the limits of the appellation. It has been ſuppoſed, with good reaſon,

that the inhabitants of the earth, the air, and the water, were sufficiently distinguished by their respective elements. On the subject of the great outlines of the System of Nature we shall enlarge very soon; but the distinctions just mentioned will appear, at the first moment, indispensable. The force of this arrangement, viz. confining the appellation of fishes to the inhabitants of water, and birds to animals that fly, &c. will be greater, when we consider, that, in this way, we deprive the Linnéan system of its most striking, its most hideous incongruities, viz. the union of bats with human beings, and of whales with terrestrial animals: the one is an inhabitant of the water, the other of the air. Yet, on a nearer view, to unite the one with fishes, and the other with birds, would appear still more incongruous. Fishes live in water only: the whale requires air. Bats flit through the air without the most striking appendages of a bird,—wings or feathers. The whale has lungs as well as land animals, is viviparous, and nourishes its young; nor does it so much resemble fishes as the seal, which evidently belongs to terrestrial animals. The bat breathes by lungs confined in the chest; not admitting, like birds, the air through every cavity; and nourishes its young like the other mammalia. So distinct, therefore, is an obvious from a real and natural classification. It was not without reflexions of this kind that we were ourselves reconciled to the separation of whales from fishes, the first deviation of Linnĕ from his friend Artedi. One other deviation from the system of Artedi is not, perhaps, equally defensible, viz. arranging the cartilaginous fishes and the branchiostegi, those which have a single branchial aperture on each side, among the reptiles. These are truly fishes; and, though they can breathe air without the intervention of water, can yet wholly live in water. Linné seems to have been misled by the apparent simplicity which the discovery of the mud-eel of Inguana in Carolina afforded to his system, by forming the connecting link between the serpents and breathing fishes, as this animal breathes both by gills and lungs. If it be objected that the nature of the mud-eel, an imperfect animal in its progress to a more perfect state, the tadpole of a future reptile, was discovered subsequent to the new arrangement, it at least gave stability to an apparent foundation for the separation of these animals from fishes, procuring for it a more favourable reception. We meant to have followed the history of the arrangement of fishes to the present æra, but the whole would be too extensive, and the changes of Gronovius and others are too inconsiderable to detain us: we shall therefore immediately notice that of our author.

M. Cepede first divides fishes into cartilaginous and osseous, a distinction clear and discriminated. These classes

are ſubdivided into four branches, founded on the preſence or abſence of an operculum or external membrane, an appendage to the organ of reſpiration, which alone diſtinguiſhes fiſhes from other animals with red blood.

Each diviſion preſents four orders, analogous to thoſe which Linné introduced for the arrangement of thoſe animals, which he ſtrictly ſtyled fiſhes; and theſe differences are found to be conformable to a more important internal ſtructure, that of the ſkeleton. There are, therefore, eight diviſions, and thirty-two orders. The parts which diſtinguiſh the orders, in each diviſion, are the ſame; ſo that the whole arrangement may be comprehended at a ſingle glance. In this volume the genera of cartilaginous fiſhes only are noticed. The genera of the other claſs are not yet brought forwards, in order that advantage may be taken of thoſe diſcoveries which are announced previous to the publication of the other volumes. We do not underſtand that they have yet appeared.

To each genus is prefixed a table, and the hiſtory of fiſhes will be concluded with a complete methodical table of the claſſes, diviſions, orders, genera, and ſpecies. The latter exceed 1000; though, if we recollect rightly, thoſe enumerated by Linné were not more than 400. Some of the orders contain no genus; but M. Cepede wiſhed to give his ſyſtem at preſent its full extent, and not to require additions at a future period. Even while writing, new genera occurred to fill ſome of the lacunæ. Forſkaal, Sonnini, and the later travellers to the Chineſe ſeas, muſt have been great contributors. We remember examining, not many months ſince, ſome beautiful drawings of Chineſe fiſhes, where the ſplendor of the colouring was apparently exceeded by the accuracy of the repreſentation, among which we could diſcover ſome ſpecies referable to no eſtabliſhed genus. We guard, in this reſpect, our language, in conformity to ſome remarks we have already made, and to the conduct of our author, which we think delicate and commendable. The new names, which he has formed from thoſe of ſome reſpectable naturaliſts, he has applied to the ſpecies; 'for theſe (he adds) are invariable, while thoſe of the genera may be changed with every new method which the progreſs of ſcience may introduce.'

The firſt ſection of cartilaginous fiſhes, in the preſent volume, is divided into four orders:—1. the apodes; 2. jugulares; 3. thoracici; 4. abdominales: and the orders in each claſs and each ſection are the ſame.

Of the apodes there are two genera, the lamprey and the gaſtrobranche (petromyzon), and two ſpecies; one brought by Dombey from South America, not very unlike the blind lamprey; the other is the blind lamprey (the myxinel glutinoſa of Gmelin). Of the ſecond and third order there are

no genera or species yet known. Of the fourth order there are three genera:—1. the rays: 2. squali (the sharks); 3. aodon, a genus formed by our author. It consists of three species; two squali; viz. the S. massasa and kumal of Linné, separated from the sharks in consequence of the want of teeth; and the horned shark of Bonaterre, described by Brunich in his Icthyologia Massilicasis, from a dried head in the academical collection of Pisa.

As the first division contained fishes without any branchial opercule, or branchial membrane, so the second comprises fishes without the former, but possessing the latter; the third, those with the branchial opercule, without the membrane; and the fourth with both. Of the first order of the second division there are no species: of the second order there is one genus, the lophius, in English the sea-devil, the sea-toad, the fishing-frog, &c. Of this last there are some new species, three distinguished by the names of Faujas, Commerson, and Ferguson.

Of the third order there is one genus only, the balistes (in English, the old-wife), of which there are twenty-four species, many of them new; but this genus, by the confession of Commerson, whose MSS have greatly assisted our author in his labours, is far from being sufficiently known. Linné was only acquainted with eight species. The last order contains also a single genus only, viz. the clumæra, sometimes called the sea-ape. The two species described by Linné have received no additions.

In the third division the three first orders contain no genera; the fourth, the abdominales, contains two, the polyodon and the accipenser. The only species of the former described is a new one, called the leafy polyodon, from having, on each side, a membrane, resembling somewhat, in texture, the leaves of trees. It is of the shark kind, but differs from the squali by having only one branchial aperture on each side. Its structure is also essentially different in many respects, the muzzle nearly equalling in length the head, body, and tail. The other genus, the accipenser (the sturgeon), comprises three species, noticed by Gmelin in *his* edition of the System of Nature.

The first order of the fourth division contains six genera;—1. the ostracion, the bony-skin fish; 2. the tetrodon, the sun fish; 3. the ovoides; 4. the diodon; 5. the spheroides; 6. syngynathes.—Of these, the three first are contained only in the volume before us.

Of the ostracion there are fifteen species, many of which are new; of the tetrodon, nineteen, of which six are new. The oviforms constitute a new genus, distinct from the tetrodons on account of their singular form, and wanting all fins but the pectoral, which are as small as the wings of a fly. It re-

ſembles an egg, even when its abdomen is not dilated: when it is ſo, the reſemblance is more complete.

We muſt now turn to the preliminary diſcourſe on the nature of fiſhes, which is written in the highly-laboured and poetical, perhaps it may be called the inflated, ſtyle of Buffon. We ſhall ſelect one or two ſpecimens, of which the firſt forms the introduction.

'The genius of Buffon, expatiating over this planet, has enumerated, deſcribed, and denominated viviparous quadrupeds and birds, leaving moſt exquiſite pictures of their different manners. Honoured by his choice, for the purpoſe of adding ſome new ſketches, as a ſupplement to his more important tablets, I have endeavoured to explain the number, the forms, and the habitations, of oviparous quadrupeds and ſerpents. I ſhall now attempt to finiſh the hiſtory of thoſe living and ſenſible beings known by the appellation of animals with red blood, by offering that of the immenſe claſs of fiſhes.

'We are here to contemplate beings moſt worthy the attention of the philoſopher. Let the imagination, lightened by the torch of ſcience, collect within its glance all the organiſed productions of the creative power: let it unite them according to their ſimilitudes, and compoſe a whole ſo vaſt, that, from man to the plant which approaches neareſt to unorganiſed matter, every degree of compoſition, every combination of ſtrength, every varied ſhade of life, may ſucceed in an equally different number of directions, and by degrees equally inſenſible. In the midſt of this wonderful ſyſtem of innumerable varieties are found the different families of fiſhes which conſtitute our preſent ſubject: theſe are the ſingular links which unite the more perfect animals with the legions of inſects, worms, and the leſs compound animals, and with the more ſimple tribes of the vegetable kingdom. They participate in the organiſation, the properties, the faculties of all: they are the centre, where the rays of the ſphere, which comprehends the whole of animated nature, converge: they ſhow, with every thing around, relations more marked, more diſtinct, and more ſtriking, becauſe more nearly approaching: they receive more ſtrongly, and reflect more vividly, to the obſerver, the brilliant light which reſults from compariſon, and without which, to the moſt active mind, objects would be as if they did not exiſt.'

At no great diſtance M. Cepede riſes higher, into the regions of poetry; but perhaps, in a work of this kind, humbler proſe might have been more ſuitable: we ſhall ſelect the paſſage for more than one reaſon.

'Of all animals with red blood, fiſhes are thoſe whoſe

domain is least limited; but this immensity, so far from distracting our imagination, raises and encourages it: and what can better elevate, animate our intelligence, fix our attention, and hold it in that religious contemplation so proper for the perception of truth, as the immense and varied spectacle which the innumerable habitations of fishes present? On one side, seas without bounds, and immoveable in a profound calm; on the other, waves yielding to every agitation of currents and tides. Here, the rays of the sun, reflected in their vivid colouring by the burning waves of the equatorial seas; there a thick haze, silently reposing on mountains of ice, floating in the midst of hyperborean glooms. The sea, sometimes tranquil, doubling by its reflexion the number of the stars in the calmest night, and under the most serene sky; sometimes the accumulated clouds, preceded by the deepest darkness, precipitated by a tempest, darting their redoubled thunders against the enormous mountains raised by the winds. At a distance, and on the continents, torrents furiously rolling from cataract to cataract, or the limpid stream of a silver river, softly meandering along a flowery bank, towards a calm lake, enlightened by the pale splendor of the moon. In the sea, grandeur, power, sublime beauty, all announce creative Nature, all manifest her glory and magnificence. On the enchanting banks of lakes and rivers she is felt in her softest charms; the soul is wildly agitated, hope is warmed, remembrance animated by tender feelings, and gives way to affections so truly interesting, and so favourable to happy suggestions—Ah! in the midst of what to the feeling is most powerful, to the soul most grand and sublime, can we fail to experience that internal spring, that ardent love of science, which impediments, distance, and time, increase instead of diminishing?'

This is, in many senses, poetry. It has little solidity in its foundation, and less in its superstructure. The most violent tempests seldom reach the bottom of the ocean, for its inhabitants and weeds are scarcely for ages disturbed. When storms approach, fishes of every kind seek unfathomable depths; and, when the chilling east wind blows, they are no longer found within its influence. They frequent the bays and the eddies only when the softer south renders the waters near the shore of an equal temperature. As the author acknowledges, fishes often keep to an accustomed coast; but this is by no means invariable. Some species will, for years, leave their usual haunts, and again return: sometimes they are seen there no more. The fishes of passage, the salmon, the pilchard, and the herring, though on the whole constant, are sometimes capricious in their choice: the first will for ages neglect the *embouchure* of one river, and ascend a neighbouring rivulet;

they will in turn neglect the latter, and prefer the former. The herring and the pilchard are more sober in their attachments, and pursue a steady course, from the Baltic to South America, visiting, very generally, the same spots. Yet these are also capricious in their preference; and, in Cornwall, some given bay will, for many years, be neglected by the latter, while the Frith of Forth, now so much distinguished by the former, used to be but scantily supplied with their nourishing shoals. Those who examine these changes minutely will perceive somewhat owing to the alterations in the banks, which vary the course of the currents: more is often to be attributed to the supply of their peculiar nourishment in a given spot, which a change in the shores may destroy. In general, a fish swims against rather than with the stream, as to impel its course is more easy than to preserve its balance. Fishes are also usually insectivorous; and, like all animals of this kind, can bear a long fast: in their increasing state they eat voraciously; when adult, a small portion of food seems to suffice; and, when deprived of animals, will often feed, though not with satisfaction, on farinaceous and other vegetable food.

These, and similar investigations, should have employed our author in the preliminary discourse. In this branch of the physiology of fishes, which has been much neglected, and on which we may at a future period enlarge, the subject has engaged much of our attention, on the shores of the sea, and in different modes of fishing. The fisherman's knowledge has not yet enlightened the pages of the philosopher. Another inquiry, which we have before suggested, might form a pleasing subject of disquisition. There is little doubt that this globe was once covered with water, and this water was salt: there is as little doubt that fishes existed prior to the æra when the world became habitable for the human race. It must thence follow, that all fishes were originally inhabitants of salt water, and that the present species of river-fishes are a degenerated race, in an element not perfectly congenial. Much might, we think, be said in favour of this supposition: but we must forbear from the discussion.

M. Cepede speaks of the general form of fishes, their anatomy, and their functions. The gills, he observes, exhibit the office of lungs, and separate from the sea the oxygen which it contains; but the surface, the external cavities of the stomach and intestines, may assist in this office, and absorb vital air from the surrounding fluid. Yet perhaps the fat of many fishes, and the slimy substance, or scales, which cover every kind, may prevent this effect, by hindering the water from coming in contact with the animal.

The organs of sense in fishes are examined at some length;

but we evidently ſee M. Cepede has ſtudied the nature of fiſhes in his cloſet only. Their ſenſe of ſmell is indeed very ſimple, but that of hearing is by no means ſo. They derive great advantage from the element in which they live, which conducts ſound, as we have had occaſion to ſhow, much better than air; but their organ of hearing lies deep in the head, and the external aperture is almoſt imperceptible. There is indeed much reaſon to think that the general appearances which prove them to be ſenſible of noiſe ariſe from a concuſſion of the element in which they are, communicated to the whole body. The ſenſe of touch muſt be conſequently more delicate than our naturaliſt has repreſented it, who never, probably, caught trouts by tickling them. It is a ſingular fact, that if the hand is held quietly in the water, a fiſh will not be diſturbed by it; and, if the fingers are ſlowly raiſed, to touch the under part of the body, it will, after a ſlight titillation, be ſo much pleaſed, as to ſuffer the hand to ſeiſe it. M. Cepede alſo, who ſuppoſes the cauſe of ſalmon, for inſtance, repairing to rivers to be a torpid inactivity previous to laying their eggs, can never have ſeen theſe fiſhes coming up rivers, and leaping over weirs and other cataracts.

The beautiful colours of fiſhes he has very imperfectly explained. He conſiders them as originally owing to the brilliancy of the ſun's light in fiſhes of the equinoctial ocean, and as immediately derived from a kind of priſmatic reflexion of the ſolar rays from the ſcales, or from the light becoming a compound part. The colours, whatever they are, muſt ſhine from their own peculiar nature, ſince fiſhes reſiding in the cavities of rocks are often beautifully reſplendent; and the colours of others, when viewed even in deep water, are the ſame, or perhaps more vivid. The ſlime, which our author calls the varniſh, is certainly the ſeat of the colour, which is heightened by the circulation. When a fiſh is ſhaken with others, as when taken in a trawl, though its ſcales are uninjured, the colour is loſt: it may be alſo waſhed away, without deſtroying the ſcales; but in every inſtance, when the animal is dead, it decays, and ſometimes wholly diſappears. The ſhades and ſtriæ exiſt in the ſkin, and the uniform colouring is thus varied in the beautiful tints of many brilliant fiſhes. In this part alſo we meet with ſome little poetical tincturing in our author, of which we ſhall tranſcribe a ſhort ſpecimen.

'From what has been ſaid we may eaſily conclude, that on theſe coaſts, where copious ſtreams of light can penetrate through the water, fiſhes will be adorned with a greater number of beautiful tints. Indeed thoſe which ſhine with the ſplendor of the moſt poliſhed metals, or the richeſt gems, are

found in the tropical oceans, whose surface is inundated by the rays of a sun, unshaded by a cloud, poured over these equatorial regions, and filling the atmosphere with its splendor. We find also fishes decorated with equal magnificence of colouring in the polar seas, where mountains of ice and eternal snows, congealed by cold, reflect light from myriads of surfaces, and render that which the moon and auroræ scatter during the long nights of these glacial zones, as well as the light which the sun dispenses during the extended continuance of an hyperborean day, more dazzling.

'If the fishes which inhabit, or are concealed by, these congealed masses, though frequently splendid and brilliant, excel, in the variety and beauty of colouring, those of the temperate zones, they yet yield in the richness of their ornaments to those which inhabit the burning waters of the tropics. In these countries, where the atmosphere is almost on fire, must not the heat give a new activity to the light, increase the attractive force of this fluid, facilitate its combination with the substance of the scales, and thus produce shades much more brilliant and various? Hence, in climates where every thing bears the print of the solar power, some species of fishes display, even on the covered membrane of their branchiæ, the elements of shining scales—a silvery dust.

'But it is only in the midst of sweet or salt water that fishes wear their superb or elegant decorations: it is only in a fluid most analogous to their nature that, in possession of all their faculties, they animate their colours by every internal movement their exertions can produce. It is only in the midst of water, that, independent of the oily and transparent varnish, elaborated by their organs, their shades are embellished by a second varnish, formed by the strata of the fluid through which we perceive them.'

We cannot stay to examine this reasoning, A slight attention will show that it confutes itself; and to suppose reflected light again reflected, the light of aurora borealis, which does not impede the sight of the smallest star, when reflected, to be increased so much in intensity as to equal the tropical splendors, is an idea truly unphilosophical.

The propagation of fishes is explained at length, with great clearness, and we believe with great accuracy, and the action of their different fins and muscles discriminated with considerable propriety. The air-bladders of fishes have lately engaged much attention, and M. Cepede has collected what later chemists have endeavoured to ascertain by analysis, respecting the nature of the air. It has been found of very different kinds in different fishes and in different situations; but our author suspects that it is naturally hydrogen; not

only as this is the lighter gas, and consequently better adapted to render the animal buoyant, but because this gas must be the result of the decomposition of the water in the branchiæ. Each position must be examined.

Artedi, many years since, found that, by puncturing the air vesicle, the fish could no longer support its balance, or rise to the surface of the water. The air-bladder has therefore been considered as the cause of the buoyancy of fishes. The conclusion is however too hastily drawn. Fishes rise naturally, as specifically lighter than water, for when dead they will still swim in it: when their powers are destroyed by intoxication they will also rise to the surface. Even were it not so, the rising and sinking are voluntary motions, and the air-bladder has no muscle to contract it, nor the fish any visible method of filling it with air: it has no aperture to admit a greater, or to suffer a superfluous, quantity to pass off. To this may be added, that the fish rises and sinks rapidly, without any apparent distension of the abdomen in the former, or diminution in the latter attempt; that the bladder appears incapable of any considerable variation in its capacity, and is in bulk too disproportioned to the size of the fish to admit of its answering the purpose assigned. That it contributes therefore to the buoyancy of fishes is probable; but it is equally so, that this is not its principal use. We long since conjectured that it was the repository of some excrementitious gas, and probably hydrogen, which was secreted from the fluids.—But this rather belongs to another position, which we also intend to consider.

That water is decomposed in the branchiæ is an hypothesis only, though it may be styled a very probable one It is however unnecessary, for the water must contain air not chemically combined; and blood, we know, has an attraction for a part or the whole of this element. If water be decomposed, and its hydrogen combined in the substance of the fish, as M. Cepede insinuates, while its superfluous part is carried to the air bladder, the water must be absorbed entire, and the decomposition take place in the vessels; for there is no apparatus in the branchiæ for this purpose. This however is not supported by facts; for water must contain uncombined air, or the fish will die;—an event that would not have taken place if the œconomy of the animal were enabled to supply it from absorbed water. On the whole, we suspect that in Artedi's experiment the fish was injured, and that the air-bladder contributes only to preserve the balance of the animal; for, in Boyle's experiment, when the air was exhausted the belly swelled, and the fish rose to the surface, as it does in a state of intoxication, laying on its back.

The only other part of the discourse we shall mention re-

lates to the means of attack or defence which fiſhes poſſeſs; but M. Cepede confines himſelf chiefly to their arts, and is not wholly aware of all theſe, or of the uſe of the antennæ. He thinks they contain no poiſonous fluid, except what they occaſionally derive from their food. He ſpeaks not of the perſeverance of the ſhark, the open violence and deſtructive appetites of other fiſhes, who follow the numerous ſhoals of herrings or mackarel; the rapid dartings of the tail of the ſhag-ray, &c. Theſe details are perhaps preſerved for the particular articles.—On the whole, though we have diſcovered too ſlight an acquaintance with the nature of fiſhes, and their œconomy, in this diſcourſe, a great part of it is executed with conſiderable ability and no inconſiderable elegance. The execution of the particular articles we ſhall advert to in our review of the ſubſequent volumes.

Before we conclude this critique we muſt notice the ornaments of the volume. The engravings are peculiarly accurate and diſtinct, but not always ſo elegant or ſo delicate as we wiſhed to have found them. Perhaps the peculiar beauty of Block's figures (we allude to the French tranſlation) has made us faſtidious. Seven entire plates, and as many figures in other plates, are taken from Commerſon's drawings. The whole number in this volume are twenty-five; but each of the ſubſequent volumes, it is ſaid, will contain fifty. Theſe we ſhall notice as ſoon as we have received them.

Traité du Calcul Différential et du Calcul Intégral.

A Treatiſe on the Doctrine of Differentials or Fluxions. Continued from Vol. XXIX. p. 503.

THE laſt chapter of the firſt part of La Croix's differential ſyſtem is occupied entirely with the theory of curves, on the principles of equations laid down in the chapter preceding. Hence, as he had adopted the imaginary hypotheſis that the number of roots in an equation is exactly the ſame with the higheſt index of the unknown quantity in that equation, he purſues the ſame plan with many writers in drawing his curves, and in ſome caſes advances even beyond the bounds allowed by that hypotheſis. The ſimple fact is, that the values of an ordinate to a given abſciſſa depend on the number of roots which the equation in the given caſe is capable of poſſeſſing; and this number does not admit the fiction here introduced, of a poſitive and negative value of the abſciſſa; which is, in other words, changing the equation, and introducing another of a different form. Our author is aware

of the difficulty attending his ſyſtem, but he has by no means removed it.

'I ſhall obſerve (he ſays) that nothing determines on which ſide the abſciſſas or the ordinates are to be regarded as poſitive; but when the choice is made, the oppoſite ſides become, in conſequence of that choice, negative. I inſiſt upon theſe remarks, only becauſe it ſeems to me, that in moſt elementary books it is not proved with ſufficient care; that we muſt take the negative quantities in an oppoſite direction to the poſitive: yet on this very much depends the form of every curve line.'

We agree entirely with him, that elementary writers have not ſufficiently conſidered the reaſons for what they advance, on the oppoſition of the poſitive and negative ordinates; and, we may add too, that we have ſeen nothing in this work to convince us that ſuch an oppoſition really exiſts; or rather, from the very firſt inſtance adduced in this chapter, we might prove the contrary. It is from the equation $y=ax+b$. When x is nothing, then y is equal to b. When x is made negative, or, in other words, ax is to be ſubtracted from b, then we have a new equation $y=b-ax$; and the abſciſſa being now taken, in an oppoſite direction, the ſtraight line, which was the locus of the firſt equation hence produced, forms the locus at the ſecond equation. When $ax=b$, then $y=0$, and this ſtraight line now meets the axis; but x cannot be made any greater; for ax cannot be ſubtracted from b, when ax is greater than b. Yet from this point, if the equation be again changed to its firſt form $y=ax+b$, the ſtraight line produced makes the locus of the new equation, provided y is taken on the oppoſite ſide of the axis. This taking of y on the oppoſite inſtead of the ſame ſide of the axis, from the ſuppoſed change of the ſign, is a mere *gratis dictum*; for we muſt firſt allow that ax can, in this caſe, be taken from b; that is, that a greater quantity can be ſubtracted from a leſs; and when we allow this violence of ſuppoſition, there is no reaſon why y, on one ſide of the axis, ſhould be conſidered as negative more than the other.

Our ordinate began, we will ſuppoſe, at a conſiderable diſtance on the left hand from the point where the locus of the equation cut the axis; it diminiſhed as it approached to that point: at that point it vaniſhed: and, as the motion continued, y came again into exiſtence, and formed a locus on the ſame ſide of the axis, making an angle with it equal to that which was made by the locus in its preceding ſtate. Now, as the advocates for the fiction of negatives, ſuppoſe that a quantity which exiſts and then becomes nothing, and then paſſes into another ſtate, paſſes, according to their language, from

nothing into negative, we cannot see how they can deny to our new series of ordinates, formed on the same side of the axis with the preceding series of ordinates, but with a contrary motion of the point, the name of negatives, as well as to those on the opposite side of the axis. There seems to be no ground for the assumption of one side or other of the axis, as positive and negative; and the elementary writers not being able to give a satisfactory reason for that assumption, have very prudently confined themselves to mere assertion, instead of applying to that rigid scrutiny of demonstration which the nature of the case evidently demands.

Allowing the positions required by the advocates for negative quantities, we have been generally confined to a particular number of branches; to a curve line, according to the highest index of the unknown number. Thus in the equation $y^4 - 96\,a^2\,y^2 + 100\,a^2\,x^2 = x^4$, this number is confined to four; yet, when x is greater than $10\,a$, we can see only one ordinate corresponding to each value of the abscissa, and consequently only one infinite branch; though our author discovers in it four infinite branches; and proceeds to another equation, where the highest index of x and y is only four; and assures us, that in this equation there may be eight infinite branches. This equation deserves the consideration of mathematicians who adopt the vulgar hypothesis. It is proposed in the following form:

$$y^4 - 2x^2\,y^2 + x^4 - a^2\,x^4 + b^4 = o;$$

whose roots are contained, our author says, in the form

$$y = \pm\sqrt{x^2 \pm \sqrt{a^2\,x^2 - b^4}}$$

and consequently he reasons that 'this form gives for y four real and infinite values when x is made positive and infinite, and an equal number on the supposition that x is negative and infinite; and it is to be seen hereafter that the number of infinite branches of a curve cannot be more than the double of that which marks the degree of its equation.'

In examining the truth of the above position, we must by the obvious methods find the roots of the equation, or see whether from inspection it appears that the curve can have any infinite branch. Now it is evident from such inspection that it may have an infinite branch; for x being made indefinitely greater than any given quantity, there will be a corresponding value of y indefinitely greater than that definite number. Hence we are led to examine into the values of y in all inferior values of x. To do this we must transform our equation agreeably to these values of x, and it will be first

$$y^4 - 2\,x^2\,y^2 = a^2\,x^2 - x^4 - b^4$$

Consequently as long as x is less than a there can be only one value of y to each value of x, and the curve admits not of an

infinite branch in this ſtate of the equation. Let us try it in the other form it is capable of admitting, and then

$$2x^2y^2 - y^4 = x^4 - a^2x^2 + b^4$$

Therefore $x^4 - 2x^2y^2 + y^4 = x^4 - x^4 + a^2x^2 - b^4$

and $x^2 \mp y^2 = a^2x^2 - b^4$

That is $y = \sqrt{x^2 \pm \sqrt{a^2x^2 - b^4}}$

Conſequently when x is made greater than any given number greater than $\sqrt{a^2x^2 - b^4}$ there will be two values of y correſponding to it, or the curve admits of two infinite branches. Thus our author's eight infinite branches have ſubſided according to our eſtimation into two infinite branches; nor do we ſee the leaſt grounds for, or utility in, the reſearches after the other ſuppoſed infinite branches of which four are perfectly imaginary, and the other two are the ſame with thoſe which we have found, with the addition only of an imaginary diſtinction.

Our limits will not permit us to dilate on the modes here preſented to us, of drawing tangents to curves, finding points of contrary flexure, &c. &c. which do not differ much from thoſe in common uſe, though from the endeavour to generaliſe every expreſſion they are inveloped in great obſcurity. We will extract, however, a very juſt remark on Leibnitz's method of conſidering curves, who regarded them 'as polygons, with an indefinite number of ſides indefinitely ſmall; and of which, according to his hypotheſis, the tangent is the prolongation only of one ſide of the polygon. It ſeems, at firſt ſight, that his method of finding the ſubtangent is only an approximation; for however ſmall we may ſuppoſe the ſides of the polygon, they can never be confounded with the curve; and conſequently no one ſide can be conſidered as part of the tangent: but in the calculation a circumſtance is introduced which juſtifies the ſubſtitution of the polygon for the curve, which is the ſubtraction of the powers of dx higher than the firſt, and of all the quantities which may be conſidered as infinitely ſmall with reſpect to others. In fact, if on one ſide the analytical reſults thus obtained be ſo much the nearer the truth as dx is diminiſhed in magnitude, on the other the polygon differs leſs from the curve inaſmuch as the number of the ſides is increaſed; and as the number of the ſides may be increaſed without limit, it follows that the reſult obtained from the polygon differs from that which correſponds to it in the curve by a magnitude leſs than any given magnitude. Under this point of view the differentials do not preſent any idea to which a ſound underſtanding can object, and may thus be applied with the greateſt eaſe to every queſtion which occurs in the theory of curves.' In this opinion we are happy to coin-

cide completely, as it removes entirely the objections arising from the velocity introduced into our mode of treating these questions, and whose magnitude it is much more difficult to conceive in every varying point of a curve than it is to see the relation of the increments of the curve ordinate and axis when the curve itself is considered as the limit of a polygon.

The second volume contains the inverse method of differentials analogous to our inverse method of fluxions, and the subject is treated nearly in the same manner, except that the same fault attaches to this which we have noticed in the preceding volume—the desire of generalising too much, instead of leading the learner by easy instances to the more difficult parts of this difficult subject.

Though we have thus ventured to express our disapprobation of some positions and some parts of the plan of this very laborious and ingenious author, we should be sorry that it should discourage the higher class of our mathematical readers from perusing and profiting by the many profound researches which he will find in this work. In the resolution of fluxional equations much recondite matter will be discovered; and the author has availed himself with great advantage of the labours of Monge, Euler, D'Alembert, and the best mathematical writers. His reading is immense; and the list of authors to whom he refers in every chapter affords not only a valuable proof of his industry, but at the same time will be found very useful to every one who is pursuing the same career. We lay down the volumes impressed with a full conviction that the work is not adapted to learners in our meridian; but to the proficients in the analytic art we recommend them, as containing a variety of very difficult theorems and problems on which they may profitably exercise their leisure and their abilities.

OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT

OF

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FRANCE.

ESSAI d'améliorer, &c. An Attempt to ameliorate the Agriculture, the Arts, and the Commerce of France. By J. Boſe, Member of the Tribunate. 12mo.—Many of the obſervations in this little work are by no means of a local nature, nor of ſlight import. What our author obſerves of the education of manufacturers, as well as of the proper conduct of government in aſſiſting them, merits particular attention. On the latter ſubject, he thinks giving money will be diſadvantageous, and rather recommends advances at a moderate intereſt, ſecured with caution. He particularly inſiſts on the neceſſity of laws to preſerve an uniform excellence in the manufacture.

Le Potager, &c. The Kitchen Garden, a Didactic Eſſay. By J. B. Lalanne. 8vo. Paris.—'I publiſh this Eſſay,' ſays the author, 'at a time when the enjoyments of many, formerly rich, are ſo much reduced by the misfortunes of the times, as to confine them, as it were, within the limits of a kitchen garden. May theſe ideas, which pretend to little, ſoothe their misfortunes, and make them forget what they have loſt! May this little poem afford the reader a hundredth part of the pleaſure it has given the author!'

A dialogue between the critic and the writer precedes the poem. The critic tells him that his ſubject is humble and contemptible; but the writer, with many other good reaſons for his preference of the kitchen garden, replies, that he compoſes to pleaſe himſelf—adding afterwards, in a manner ſomewhat forced, that his cabbages will brave the contempt of critics as well as the cold of winters.

A gardener only will agree with the author in calling the ſnail an 'injurious *reptile*, which man has a right to cruſh.' We may yet have ſome author who may compoſe on the *rights of ſnails*, and avenge their cauſe.

Tableau du Regne Végétal, &c. A Table of the Vegetable Kingdom, according to Juſſieu's Method. By E. P. Ventenat, of the National Inſtitute, one of the Guardians of the Library of the Pantheon. 4 vols. 8vo. with Plates.—France has boaſted of Juſſieu, as much as Sweden of Linné; and if the one has had more numerous followers, the other can number more ardent votaries. In fact, the ſyſtem of Juſſieu is leſs perfect than that of the Swediſh botaniſt, but more natural; it is even leſs pleaſing in its form and language, but, when underſtood, more convenient. M. Ventenat was the friend and pupil of the younger Juſſieu, the grandſon of Bernard, and has, in theſe volumes, explained his maſter's ſyſtem, not in a ſervile copy, but with many illuſtrations, and ſome amendments.

Prefixed to the firſt volume is a diſcourſe on the ſtudy and progreſs of botany, concluding with a plan of the preſent work. A dictionary of botany follows, pointing out, with peculiar attention, the terms employed in the deſcription of the different parts of the fruit and ſeed. He has particularly noticed the moſt celebrated botaniſts, adding a ſhort account of their lives; and has explained many parts of plants with minute accuracy and attention. The vegetable phyſiology is deſcribed with peculiar care; and the ſcience of agriculture, which is ſo much connected with this ſubject, is not omitted. To give a conſiſtency to this part, under the article Vegetable, the order in which the different articles ſhould be read is properly noticed. A very uſeful table is added of the different appellations given to the ſame part of a plant, in conſequence of its different ſtructure.

The ſecond and third volumes contain an account of all the genera which are indigenous in Europe and grow in botanic gardens, or deſerve, from their utility, to be known. Theſe are arranged in natural families, according to the ſyſtem of Juſſieu, founded on the ſeeds, as containing one or more cotyledons. We find numerous changes in this part, which we are unable to follow particularly, as Juſſieu's method is ſo little known in this country. The names of the orders, taken, in Juſſieu's own ſyſtem, from the titles of genera, are very properly altered. The hiſtory of the genera of each order is terminated by a hiſtory of their connexions with thoſe which precede and follow.

The fourth volume contains, 1ſt, an account of undetermined plants, or thoſe not readily comprehended under the former orders, and which appear to point out the neceſſity of new ones; [We need ſcarcely refer to our article on the Memoirs of the National Inſtitute, to point out many improvements of botanical ſcience, with reſpect to the cotyledons. It muſt be freſh in the reader's memory.] 2dly, an appendix,

containing ſome obſervations made during the printing; 3dly, an alphabetical table, in Latin and French, of the families, genera, and ſynonyms; 4thly, a liſt of authors quoted, and the editions employed; 5thly, twenty-four plates, compriſing 110 families, and repreſenting the diſtinguiſhing characters of each. Theſe engravings, by Redouté, contain all the organs of fructification, from the calyx to the embryo; 6thly, an analytical table, to facilitate the inveſtigation of any plant, according to this ſyſtem. On the whole, we think this work truly valuable, as it expedites the progreſs of natural orders, the firſt great object in every branch of natural hiſtory, and as it materially aſſiſts the younger botaniſt in the knowledge of the vegetable œconomy.

Dictionnaire Elémentaire, &c. An Elementary Dictionary of Botany, by Bulliard; reviſed and almoſt wholly new arranged by L. C. Richard. 8vo. Paris.—Bulliard's Dictionary has been always highly eſteemed, and this new arrangement has rendered it much more convenient as a work of reference. It is illuſtrated by twenty well-choſen engravings.

Flore de la ci-devant Auvergne, &c. The Flora of the Province once called Auvergne, or a Collection of Plants found on the Mountains of Puy-de Dome, Mont d'Or, &c. Second Edition, with the Addition of many Genera and Species, Characters, Deſcription, Duration, Time of Flowering, Ripening the Fruit, Situation, &c. By A. De Labre, M. D. Profeſſor of Botany, &c. 2 vols. 8vo.—The merit of the former edition of this delightful Flora is well known. We notice it now on another account, viz. the very excellent deſcription of the wild volcanic country, whoſe plants are deſcribed. We have ſeen nothing more inſtructive and intereſting to the mineralogiſt and general reader. Nature ſports in boundleſs variety; and craggy pics, volcanic craters, &c. are contraſted with beautiful rivers, delightful gardens, and meadows variegated with the greateſt diverſity of wild flowers.

The profeſſor's ſyſtem is deduced from the flowers and the fruit. The claſſes are the monopetali, polypetali, apetali, and cryptogamiæ; fruits ſuperior and inferior. The tranſlation of the Linnéan deſcriptions renders it highly uſeful to the French reader. A new ſpecies of verbaſcum, the V. glabrum, and of aconitum, called the Willemeteanum, in compliment to M. Willemet, we notice among the novelties. The aſperula celtica, the jaſone lævis, and aconitum humile alſo, have not been publicly deſcribed.

Manuel Coſmetique, &c. A Coſmetic and Odoriferous Manual of Plants; or a Treatiſe of all the Plants that afford Eſſences and Perfumes for the Ladies. By J. P. Buchoz. 8vo.

Paris.—M. Buchoz ſeems to poſſeſs in France nearly the ſame rank which ſir John Hill once attained in England. The ſcience of botany is exhauſted to furniſh captivating titles, and the preſent reigns pre-eminent over the reſt. To render it complete, he has added a tranſlation of the 'Toilet of Flora,' an Engliſh work, and warmly recommends his Manual to perfumers, &c. &c.

Diſquiſitio Syſtematica, &c. A Syſtematic Diſquiſition on the Leafy Moſſes of Sweden, with Deſcriptions and Plates of the new Species. 8vo. Straſburg.—For this valuable addition to the Swediſh Flora we are indebted to M. Swartz, author of the Weſt-Indian Flora.

Zoögraphie des diverſes Régions, &c. Zoögraphy of different Countries, both of the Old and New World, with an Atlas, by L. F. Jauffut, Member of a variety of Philoſophical and Literary Societies. Paris.—This work is deſigned for the inſtruction of the younger ſtudents; and the atlas which accompanies it, like that of Zimmermann in his Specimen Zoölogiæ Geographicæ, contains the figures of the animals in the ſpots which they inhabit. It contains alſo an abridgement of the natural hiſtory of the mammalia and birds of each region, with a ſhort account of the geography of their native countries; and is, on the whole, one of the completeſt and beſt-executed works of the kind that we have ſeen. It well deſerves a tranſlation.

Tables Synoptiques, &c. Synoptic Tables of Chemiſtry, by Fourcroy. Publiſhed in 1800, as an Abſtract of the Lectures in the School of Medicine at Paris. Large 4to. Bound in an Atlas, containing 12 Tables, preceded by an Introduction.—The utility of tables as references is ſufficiently obvious, and thoſe publiſhed under the eye of the author unite accuracy with perſpicuity.

Dix-ſept Articles rélatifs aux Maladies des Dents, &c. Seventeen Sections relative to Diſeaſes of the Teeth: in which it is clearly proved that an Inſpection of the Mouth produces a Knowledge of the *individual Conſtitution*. By Louis La Forgue, expert Dentiſt, &c. 8vo. Paris.—This appears to be a quack bill of no common pretenſions. We would adviſe the young ladies to keep their mouths cloſe before this experienced dentiſt, who, from the teeth, may diſcover a little too much of the 'conſtitution individuelle.'

Traité des Plaies d'Armes à Feu, &c. A Treatiſe on Gun-Shot Wounds; in which the Inutility of Amputation after ſuch Wounds, and in the greater Number of other Caſes, is demonſtrated. By J. Mehée, M. D. 12mo.—The opinion and arguments of M. Bilguer are revived in this little volume; but the author does not merely copy, he ſeems well acquainted

with his ſubject, and treats it with judgement and ability. We certainly, both in military hoſpitals and common practice, amputate too frequently.

Traité Hiſtorique et Pratique d'Inoculation, &c. An Hiſtorical and Practical Treatiſe on Inoculation, in which are inſerted the moſt important Articles of the Work of Grandoyer—in which the Rules of Conduct, not only with reſpect to the Facility of the Operation, but to the Treatment of the Small-Pox, are laid down, the Means of preventing the Contagion from ſpreading pointed out, and a Plan for general Inſtruction recommended. By MM. F. Dezoleux and L. Valentin. 8vo. Paris.—The authors promiſe much, and the work contains in reality ſome valuable remarks; but though it conſiſt only of 436 pages, we think the uſeful parts might be greatly compreſſed. The French writings on the ſmall-pox are in general inſufferably tedious.

Bibliothèque Germanique, &c. The German Medico-Chirurgical Library. By M. Brewer, Phyſician to the French Military Hoſpitals. 8vo. Paris.—This is, in other words, an analytical medical review, deſigned to diffuſe the knowledge of the medical obſervations of the German phyſicians. A work of this kind, with a proper diſcrimination, may be of ſervice; but in no country, except France, are medical publications more crude and diffuſe. England cannot always boaſt of excellence in this reſpect, but the verieſt trifles of our preſs are important in compariſon of many ephemera of the continent.

The firſt article relates to a work of M. Hufeland, on the natural and inoculated ſmall-pox, which have occurred at Weimar ſince 1788, with a ſupplement on the diſeaſes of children. This offers nothing worthy of our notice. The hyoſcyamus we ſee recommended in the hooping-cough.

The ſecond number of this bibliotheca deſcribes a caſe in which aſcarides were diſcharged by urine. The diſcharge was preceded by epileptic ſymptoms. Our faith is ſcarcely ſtrong enough to credit this aſſertion, unleſs we had further evidence, or more detailed obſervation. Among other caſes, we obſerve twenty-four drops of the juice of the tithymalus recommended for jaundice, and a ſolution of a drachm of emetic tartar in an ounce of water to remove excreſcences on the glans penis. A young woman, eight months advanced in pregnancy, is *ſaid* to have died of an hæmorrhage, as is *ſuppoſed* from the vagina, without the ovum being affected. A paper on the affection of the eyelids, as a prognoſtic in acute diſeaſes, is ſingular. The *left* eyelid falling, or the left eye ſinking, is conſidered as highly dangerous. A caſe is recorded, in which a ſtone in the kidneys produced all the ſymptoms of a calculus in the bladder. On the whole, the facts here mentioned are extraordinary; but we

could wiſh to ſee obſervations in general within the bounds of credibility, and ſomewhat more applicable to the cure of diſeaſes.

Le Conſervateur, &c. The Conſervator of Health; a Journal of Temperaments and Prophylactics. By MM. Brion and Bellay. Paris.—During the years 1783 and 1784, M. Brion publiſhed a periodical work dedicated to the Friends of Humanity, entitled an 'Eſſay on Theoretical and Practical Medicine.' This collection, among other uſeful and intereſting articles, treats of exerciſe, aliments, of madneſs or imbecility, of melancholy, noſtalgia, and hydrophobia, accompanied with meteorological obſervations. The preſent journal is a continuation of the plan; and the two firſt numbers, now before us, promiſe a fruitful harveſt in the continuation.

Traité des Membranes, &c. A Treatiſe of Membranes in general, and of different ones in particular. By Xavier Brehal. 8vo. Paris.—This work is new in an anatomical library, but it is not purely anatomical. It contains many phyſiological reſearches, and various experiments on living animals, not indeed calculated for any very important purpoſe.

Mémoire, ou Conſidérations, &c. A Memoir, or Reflexions on thoſe who are born both Deaf and Dumb, and the Means of reſtoring the Hearing to thoſe who are ſuſceptible of it. By H. R. T. Lebouvyer des Mortiers. 8vo. Paris.—This benevolent little volume is divided into three parts. The firſt contains ſome general conſiderations on the ſubject; the ſecond, an inquiry whether this defect be remediable by art; and the third contains the treatment of a perſon born deaf, with ſome other pieces relating to thoſe unfortunate beings.

The author refutes the opinion of the abbé Sicard, who conſiders the deaf and dumb as almoſt brutes; and that of Condillac, who pretends that they neither poſſeſs the faculty of remembering, nor the power of reaſoning. He proteſts, however, againſt imparting to them an idea of their ſituation, which would give them ſevere pain, and againſt torturing their minds, as has been often done, with the horrors of ſuperſtition, and a confidence in the power of ſome ſaint to reſtore the defect, which muſt end in the moſt dreadful diſappointment. It is better, he thinks, to employ ourſelves more in adding to their happineſs, and leſs in inculcating our ideas and opinions. Their inſtructions ſhould be practically uſeful, particularly in mechanics.

The ſourds-muets*, or deafly-dumb, are, in our author's opinion, often curable; and, inſtead of giving theſe unfortunate be-

* We ſhall employ this compound word as moſt expreſſive: the defect is in hearing only, for could they hear they would ſpeak. Our term deaf and dumb implies a defect in both organs.

ings to prieſts, to be inſtructed in theology, he recommends their being ſent to able anatomiſts, to examine the organs, and thoſe who die in the hoſpital being diſſected. His remedies are vapour baths, injections, and electricity. One he has certainly cured, by continuing the treatment from the middle of December to the beginning of April. It is ſingular that, in the family of Luco, among fourteen children, four are deafly-dumb, and each third was thus defective, viz. the third, the ſixth, the ninth, and twelfth.

Many ſingular facts ſeem to ſhow, that the nervous centre of the diaphragm and the feet are peculiarly ſenſible to noiſe and motion in the deafly-dumb. The latter part is peculiarly intereſting, as it contains Maſſieu's account of her thoughts and feelings before ſhe recovered her hearing. We ſhall tranſlate a part.

'She had no idea of words, but by ſeeing that people underſtood each other without ſigns.—"From hence I learnt," ſays ſhe, "that they poſſeſſed a ſenſe of which I was deprived." She had no idea of God, of the ſoul, or of immortality, but what was conveyed by her mother or her nurſe. She was carried to Verſailles, and, from thence, made to comprehend that there was a king much more powerful than him ſhe ſaw, who never died, &c.—that there was a fire into which ſhe ſhould be thrown if naughty.—The ſun appeared to her the moſt extraordinary object in the univerſe: the moon ſhe thought a female ſovereign.'

Though M. de Mortiers begins with attacking Sicard's opinion, he is far from being an enemy of his inſtitution; on the contrary, he is its warmeſt admirer *.

La Callipédie, &c. or the Art of procreating beautiful Children. A new Tranſlation of the Poem of C. Quillet. By J. M. Cailleau. 12mo. Bourdeaux.—We can ſay nothing new of the poem, nor any thing very favourable of the tranſlation, and ſhould be ſatisfied with announcing it, did not the following ſtrange mixture of weakneſs and bombaſt ſtrike us in the dedication.

'I dedicate,' ſays M. Cailleau, 'to the illuſtrious Society of Medicine, &c. at Bruſſels, to thank it for admitting me into its boſom, this new edition of a poetical phyſician, who, in an admirable work, and with a title apparently frivolous, which, however, fulfils all it promiſes, has ſung in the language of the gods, and always in the preſence of the auguſt Minerva, after the example of Homer and the veteran of Aſcra, the moſt amiable and uſeful of ſciences, the art of rendering the human ſpecies perfect, and of uniting a beautiful ſoul with a beautiful body.'

* For a hiſtory of this admirable and excellent eſtabliſhment we refer our readers to p. 507 of the preſent number.

Charpente de Philibert de l'Orme, &c. The Carpentry of Philibert de l'Orme, Architect, who lived about the Middle of the Sixteenth Century, re-publiſhed by M. Detournelle, Architect.—About the year 1550 wood was very ſcarce, and De l'Orme then began a reformation in the heavy joiner's work at that time employed. It is now re-publiſhed for a ſimilar reaſon to that which induced the author to write it.

Déſcription d'un Télegraphe, &c. A Deſcription of a very ſimple Telegraph, in Every-one's Power. 8vo. Paris.—This telegraph is the human body: the arms are the wings, and the trunk the perpendicular. The author ſhows, that various characters may be figured by it ſufficiently diſtinct to be ſeen with the naked eye or a teleſcope.

Eſſai, &c. An Eſſay on the Organiſation of Artillery. By General Leſpinaſſe. 8vo.—Experience is the baſis of our author's ſyſtem, which merits particular attention, but which we cannot, within our limits, explain. The general treats fully of the education of an artillery-officer, which he thinks ſhould conſiſt alternately of theory and practice, and contends that no one ſhould be employed but after the fulleſt examination. He propoſes alſo to unite the corps of engineers with the artillery.

Manuel Practique et Elémentaire, &c.—A Practical and Elementary Manual of Weights and Meaſures, and of the Decimal Calculus, containing the moſt accurate Inſtructions to render the new Syſtem familiar, with many comparative Tables founded on the Metre and Kilogramme. Second Edition, with the Addition of many Tables and Conſtructions, the comparative Value of the Ancient and Modern Meaſures, &c. By M. Tarbe.—A work highly neceſſary in France, where the whole ſyſtem of weights and meaſures has been deranged by modern refinements. An uniformity of meaſures is ſtill however wanting.

Elémens de Perſpective practique, &c. Elements of practical Perſpective, for the Uſe of Artiſts, followed by Reflexions and Advice to a Scholar on Painting, and particularly on the Landſcape. By P. H. Valenciennes, Painter to the Philotechnic Society, &c. With thirty-ſix Plates. 4to. Paris.—Theſe elements are, in many reſpects, highly valuable, but particularly in correcting the errors of the geometer, when his ſcience is rigorouſly applied to perſpective. The author, however, undervalues the geometrical elements too much, and is evidently not a ſtrictly ſcientific artiſt, though a landſcape-painter of eminence, and peculiarly correct in managing his diſtances. We were greatly ſtruck with the clearneſs with which the ſubject of his ſeventh chapter is explained. "The method of managing the ſhadows occaſioned by an opaque body interpoſed between the light, terminated by ſome

directions on the reflexion of objects from water." The applications of linear and aërial perspective are also very valuable.

The most pleasing part of this work is, however, the end of the 12th chapter, on gardens. The whole is divested of technical language, and enriched by numerous observations on the gardens round Rome, Paris, and London. He properly reprobates the ostentation of those who imagine they have created a mountain, because they have accumulated earth and stone somewhat above the height of a man. He mentions the reply of Coqueley to the late duke of Orléans, who asked him what he thought of his river of Mousseaux:—"My Lord (said he) it resembles a river as much as *two drops* of water."—Vernet's remark on the rock, and the baths of Apollo, is subjoined:—"If Louis XIV. had found this here, how much would he have spent to remove it? yet it cost above a million (of livres) to keep at a distance from the eye the figures of Apollo and the nymphs, which can only be seen with advantage very near."

Our author's own ideas of a garden we do not fully approve. He would retain the statues, the buildings, and the inscriptions, though he limits the latter to a local anecdote, a reflexion, or a reference to the time and circumstances of their compilation.—"It is enough to be assailed by the men of wit in society, (he adds) without being pursued by them in our moments of solitude and reflexion."

He warmly praises the Italian gardens, which we shortly noticed in our review of Mr. Price's work, though without the preference which M. Valenciennes seems to feel.—"Symmetrical composition, which is preserved in some points, is at an equal distance from the disgusting uniformity of the French gardens, and the negligence and whimsical variety of the English. They have indeed straight walks, but these are interesting from the trees which adorn, and the works of art which enrich them. The waters are confined in basins, but they are in abundance. If they are thrown into the air, it is not in a single jet, but in numerous streams, which form a majestic mass, far distant from the scanty pitiful jets of our gardens. If the quantity of water is too small, the Italian genius manages it with suitable address, as appears in the composition of the public fountain at Florence. The artist had only the slightest stream, but he has placed a Venus in it, pressing the water from her hair; and has thus magnified a little streamlet, which an artist would have despised, by an ingenious idea, equally novel and true. A larger quantity of water would have spoiled this brilliant idea."

On this subject our readers will form their own opinions, and not always agree with the author. It is more ingeniously,

perhaps more truly obſerved, that cold imitators of ancient ſtatues from Greece, Rome, and Egypt, ſcattered with little diſtinction in the grounds of Verſailles, Sans-Souci, &c. "have no expreſſion in a country ſtrange to them, but at Rome are hiſtorical monuments."

He admits, however, that Italy is not the only country of gardens, and ſpeaks with enthuſiaſm of Hagley, and the bench of Thomſon, with the inſcription, in the ſpot which he loved. He ſpeaks too of Ermenonville with high approbation, and of many gardens in France which are embelliſhed by numerous beauties.—"To adorn our ſoil (he adds) with its true glory, we want only the illumination of peace and public ſpirit. Unhappily ſhe is not, like Victory, eager to complete the brilliant deſtinies of the French nation."

The inſtruction to a young painter is very judicious. He recommends the ſtudy of Nature in her moſt pictureſque ſituations, and in her moſt varied aſpects; to contraſt or divide theſe, ſo as, together or ſeparately, to produce brilliant and ſublime, or ſoft and melancholy ſenſations. He flies for examples to diſtant countries, examining the arts in each, to illuſtrate his advice. In this part he has borrowed much from the Travels of Anacharſis, but he writes for thoſe to whom references would be tedious or impracticable.

Le Maitre de la Langue Allemande, &c. The German Maſter, or a methodical Grammar compoſed on the Models of the chief Authors of our Time, and particularly of Gottehed. Straſburg.—We chiefly notice this grammar on account of its very ſingular ſale. This is the thirteenth edition; and of the twelfth edition 3000 copies were ſold in a few months. It is not, however, a republication only. From the period of the firſt publication, German literature has greatly increaſed in extent and value: the language has been refined and improved by various authors, and each ſucceſſive editor has kept pace with theſe improvements. This thirteenth edition, in particular, is almoſt a new work. The rules are ſimplified, and rendered more perſpicuous and leſs numerous: the ſpace, thus obtained, is occupied by a greater number of well-choſen examples. The paradigms and conjugations are greatly abridged, and the number of themes is increaſed in the ſame proportion. To facilitate the practice of tranſlation, ſome of the beſt models are ſelected; and in the appendix are numerous paſſages from the beſt authors, as exerciſes.

Idée ſommaire, &c. A ſummary Idea of a great Work, on the Neceſſity, the Object, and Advantages of Inſtruction, on the Difficulties that oppoſe, and of their Removal, by Means of a complete methodical Collection of every Branch of Human Knowledge. By D. L. C. 8vo. Paris.—Such is the title of the work which our author purpoſes to publiſh. It is

divided into three parts. The first treats generally of instruction; the second of the inconveniences opposed to its progress, particularly of books, their number, their insufficiency, their imperfection, &c. The mode of remedying the deficiency is sufficiently explained in the title.

Pensées Morales. Moral Maxims. 12mo. Paris.—This is a compilation from authors on every side and in every language, but well chosen and well expressed. There are few maxims that are not striking, from their truth and the peculiar turn of the sentences. As the work lies before us, we shall copy two or three.

'He who speaks, sows: he who hears, reaps.—In doubt abstain.

'The flatterer says to anger, "revenge;" to passion, "enjoy;" to fear, "fly;" to suspicion, "believe."

'It is an excellent prayer—"God guard me from myself!"

'The sage blushes at his words when they surpass his actions.'

Vérité des Vérités. Truth of Truths. By D***. Large octavo. Paris.—We notice this excellent little pamphlet, as such phænomena are not often seen in the meridian of Paris. The first part is entitled 'philosophically divine,' treating of the existence of the world and of God, and the necessity of public worship. The second is styled 'philosophically moral,' and treats of man as united in society, of the propriety of laws, of the coercive power, anarchy, &c.

De l'Homme, &c. On Man. A Chapter detached from a Work on the various Modes of Social Organisation. 8vo. Paris.—In the comparison of man with animals, the author endeavours to prove that he cannot, with all his power, raise himself so far as to equal them in instinct; for animals are perfect,—man only susceptible of perfection. This is the idlest trash of the new philosophy; and, to confute it, only requires a definition of instinct, and a comparison between this principle and reason. He adds, that man cannot arrive at a state of nature; that his life is necessarily artificial. The history of man is that of passions, vices, and errors, which, amalgamated with the composition of man in society, must enter into the form of social organisation, whatever mode is adopted. Reasoning would be vainly employed, to correct such a mass of folly, arising from a want of discrimination, from a neglect of those distinctions which would be obvious to a capacity of the meanest kind.

Sens Prophétique de l'Exurgat Deus, &c. The Prophetical Meaning of the Exurgat Deus, or the Sixty-seventh Psalm in the Vulgate, presenting the History of the Church of Jesus Christ, with a general Idea of the Hieroglyphics in the Hebrew Letters, the Hebrew Text, the Septuagint, &c. Several Ety-

mologies drawn from the Majority of the Hebrew Words of this Pſalm, of which many, and particularly the whole firſt Verſe of the Exurgat, are analyſed Hieroglyphically; beſides the Origins of the Name of God in more than Thirty different Languages, all developed from the Hebrew. By M. l'Abbé Caperan. Paris.—This publication has two ends in view, to explain a very difficult pſalm, and to ſhow the antiquity and excellence of the Hebrew language, by the light which it throws on all other languages. In the explanation of the pſalm, we are inclined to acquieſce in the grammatical conſtruction laid down by this author, and in the deviations from the Vulgate; but as we differ from him entirely in our ideas of the church of Chriſt, we cannot by any means conſent that the glories of the church of Rome are prefigured in the ſixty-ſeventh pſalm. It will be ſufficient to point out to our readers, that the fourteenth verſe in the vulgar tranſlation rendered thus, 'when the Almighty ſcattered kings in it, it was *white* as ſnow in Salmon,' is interpreted, that when thoſe kings were diſperſed, Rome became white as ſnow in Salmon. This diſperſion of kings means the number of emperors by whom the Roman empire was divided before the time of Conſtantine, in whoſe reign Rome became 'white as ſnow.' It acquired a freſh degree of whiteneſs 'by the fall of idolatry which prevailed before in it, and by the unreſtrained profeſſion of the Chriſtian religion. Nothing is ſo natural as this explanation, which is farther developed in the following verſe; deſcribing the flouriſhing ſtate of the church under Conſtantine.' We are unfortunate in not ſeeing this whiteneſs of Rome, either in the days of Conſtantine, or in any time from thoſe to the preſent days.

On etymologies a great deal of learning is diſplayed: but when it is attempted to prove that the three perſons of the Holy Trinity are marked out by three letters in the name of Jehovah, and that the repetition of one letter in it is to ſhow the two natures of Jeſus Chriſt, we naturally expect to find many fanciful analogies between the Hebrew and other languages. From this ſpecimen, however, we are induced to hope for a conſiderable degree of information from 'The Reſearches into the Principles of Etymology, or the Mechaniſm of Languages,' which the author purpoſes to publiſh by ſubſcription, and he will receive we hope encouragement adequate to his labours.

Dictionnaire des Athées, &c. Dictionary of Atheiſts, ancient and modern, by Sylvain Maréchal.—We find, in this dictionary, many apparently good people, whom we ſhould ſcarcely have expected to ſee in ſuch company. The author muſt of courſe expect many remonſtrances. We do not find, however, that Lalande has remonſtrated.

Réflexions, &c. Reflexions on Benevolent Eſtabliſhments, containing the Means of rendering the Adminiſtration and Diſtribution of public Charities more perfect. By M. Gerard de Meley. 8vo.—This ſhort little inſtruction, on a ſubject which requires more attention than many apprehend, is the dictate of much experience, aſſiſted by judgement and benevolence. It merits a tranſlation by ſome of the ſupporters of the numerous benevolent ſocieties of this kingdom.

Recueil général des Lois, &c. A general Collection of Laws relative to the Marine and the Colonies, from the Month of May 1789 to the End of 1799, by M. Lebeau. 9 vols. 8vo. Paris.—Theſe various laws are well arranged, and each volume is preceded by a chronological table, and terminated by an alphabetical one.

Coup d'Œil Politique, &c. A Political Glance at Europe at the End of the Eighteenth Century. By J. B. 8vo. —It is no eaſy taſk, in a glance, to comprehend the true intereſt of different powers, at a moment when paſſion or diſappointment hides them from our view, or to follow the devious windings of politicians, which derange every combination, and deceive at the ſame time both enemies and allies. An author, for theſe purpoſes, ſhould unite a deep knowledge of hiſtory to habits of following and deciding on events. We cannot congratulate our author on all theſe qualifications, but his remarks are generally acute, and his judgement frequently correct and impartial. His ſtyle is animated and perſpicuous. What he obſerves on the treaty of Campo Formio merits our chief attention.

Réponſe au Roi d'Angleterre. Reply to the King of England. 12mo.—This anſwer to the king is in reply to that of his miniſters, in rejecting the overtures of the firſt conſul. It has nothing remarkable but the motto, which is the following: 'George, you wiſh for war, and you ſhall have it.'

De la Litérature, &c. Literature conſidered, in relation to Social Inſtitutions. By Madame de Stael Holſtein. 2 vols. large 8vo. Paris.—Madame de Stael is the daughter of M. Neckar, and inherits, from her father, confidence in her own talents, with a moderate ſhare of judgement, not without the cultivation of a good education, though miſapplied in its objects. She might have been an amiable and a ſenſible woman, if ſhe had no pretenſions to the character of a learned one. In this work ſhe often ſteps beyond her confines; indeed, beyond her knowledge.

She begins with obſerving, 'that it has not yet been philoſophically conſidered how much the human faculties are gradually expanded by works of credit and importance compoſed ſince the days of Homer.'—Strange, that ſo obvious a truth ſhould not have been conſidered, or that a wo-

man who pretends to a cultivated mind ſhould be ignorant that it is a hackneyed theme with metaphyſical writers of almoſt every kind!—In an introduction of fifty-ſix pages, literature is examined, in its relations to virtue, glory, liberty, and happineſs. According to the author's definition, 'virtue is the fine ideal of the moral world, and genius the faculty of ſeeing with acuteneſs and preciſion.' The military ſpirit, according to madame Stael, is dangerous to free ſtates, and a profeſſional ſpirit ſomewhat like prieſthood.—But enough of this trifling: let us conſider the work itſelf.

This diſquiſition is divided into two parts: the firſt contains a moral and philoſophical analyſis of Greek and Latin literature; and the ſecond examines the ſtate of information and literature in France, ſince the revolution.

The firſt chapters of the firſt part treat of the earlieſt æras of Grecian literature, of their tragedy, their comedy, philoſophy, and eloquence: the following chapters are on the ſubject of Latin literature, from the time of Auguſtus to that of the Antonines. The eighth chapter relates to the invaſion of the northern nations, the eſtabliſhment of Chriſtianity, and the revival of letters: the ninth, to the general ſpirit of literature among the moderns. The eight laſt chapters relate to Italian and Spaniſh literature; that of the north, including the Engliſh, German, Daniſh, and Swediſh; and points out the chief fault imputed to the literati of France, that of wanting taſte—meaning for the literature of the north. She pays England, however, particular attention, by her remarks on the tragedies of Shakeſpeare, which ſhe does not underſtand; and on the pleaſantry, the imagination, the philoſophy and eloquence of the Engliſh, of which ſhe appears a very imperfect judge. The laſt chapter treats of German literature; and Werter is, ſhe thinks, emphatically, 'the book' of the Germans. The criticiſms on German writers are crude and ſuperficial. She concludes by obſerving, that the Germans want taſte naturally, and they are unable to acquire it by imitation.

In the three firſt chapters of the ſecond part ſhe begins with examining by what means the French nation poſſeſſed the greateſt taſte, grace, and gaiety; and the ſuperiority is aſcribed to its monarchical inſtitutions and their influence. She next examines the ſtate of French literature during the age of Louis XIV. and the 18th century. In the reſt of the work ſhe treats of their taſte and urbanity of manners, as well as of their literary and political influence; of the *emulation of women who cultivate letters*; of works of imagination and philoſophy; of the ſtyle of authors as well as of magiſtrates, and of eloquence.

Dictionnaire Univerſel, &c. The Univerſal Dictionary of

Commercial Geography. By J. Peuchet. 4to. Paris.—The fifth and laſt number of this work has juſt been delivered, and the whole is now completed. The author's effort is to ſhow the form, the nature, the objects, and the laws of commerce in every commercial country, ſtate, or city. It is founded on the Univerſal Dictionary of Commerce, by the abbé Morellet, not before publiſhed, to which the author has added the new information found in different works ſince the year 1783, as well as the changes which have occurred, in theſe reſpects, in different parts of Europe.

The introduction contains a very complete hiſtorical view of the progreſs of navigation, commerce, and agriculture, manufactures, inſtitutions relating to commerce, and the laws of property. The work itſelf is indiſpenſable to all commercial people, as it points out the ſources where they can obtain the merchandiſes at the firſt hand; to manufacturers, ſince it explains the qualities of the different objects of manufacture, the rules followed in manufacturing them, and the places of the greateſt conſumption; to bankers, ſince it treats of exchange and the value of money in every country. It enters alſo into extenſive details on colonial productions, and the ſpeculations which may be made to the Indies, the Levant, to the Black Sea, and to the American iſlands.

The author has explained the new inſtitutions of France reſpecting commerce, without omitting the former regulations. He has adopted the new diviſions into departments, and pointed out the chief objects of commerce in each. The article '*Europe*' contains all the treaties of commerce which form the baſis of the civil laws in this reſpect, and the work is terminated by a full and uſeful index.

Tableau de Commerce de la Grèce, &c. Account of the Commerce of Greece, from the Year 1787 up to 1797. By Felix Beaujour, Ex-conſul in Greece. 2 vols. 8vo. Paris.—The commerce of Greece forms a conſiderable part of that of the Levant, and the author thinks it will be advantageous to France. This work is, however, intereſting in another view. The author examines the geography of this famous country, enumerates its natural productions, deſcribes the manners, the induſtry, and the arts of the inhabitants, and thus raiſes his work above the narrow limits of commerce, and renders it equally uſeful and entertaining.

Voyage Pittoreſque de la Syrie, &c. A Picturesque Tour through Syria, Egypt, Phœnicia, Paleſtine, and Lower Egypt. By M. Gazes. Large Folio. N° 13.—We have before noticed the preceding numbers of this work, and need only add that the thirteenth contains ſix plates.—1. Antioch—a view of the harbour called Medina; 2. the large towers in the ſame city, making a part of its walls, and called, by the common

people, the remains of the palace of Seleucus; 3. a groupe of ſixteen columns at Palmyra; 4. monuments ſituated in the valley that leads to Palmyra; 5. entablature of the Temple of the Sun at Balbech; 6. a ſepulchral monument hewn from a rock at Jeruſalem.

Voyage Pittoreſque de la Syrie, &c. N° 14.—The fourteenth number contains alſo ſix plates.—1. The remains of a magnificent edifice at Palmyra, 'which *may have been* the palace of Zenobia,' or not. This building had evidently many different fronts, and is ſituated to the ſouth-eaſt of the great gallery; 2. mauſoleum of Elabelus; 3. an internal view of the ſame; 4. an elevation of the portico of the Temple of the Sun at Balbech; 5. a view of the city of Cerine, on the northern coaſt of the iſland of Cyprus; 6. a portion of the rock called Youz Ber Euv, or the hundred and one houſes, ſituated between the cities of Nicoſia and Cerine in Cyprus.

Voyage d'un Français aux Salines de Bavarie, &c. The Journey of a Frenchman to the Salt-Mines of Bavaria and Saltzburg. By M. Barbé Marbois. 18mo. Paris.—The author undertook this journey in conſequence of a diſcuſſion which took place in the Council of Ancients reſpecting the ſalt-works of France. He ſtayed here only ſix days, but ſeems to have employed his time well. Here are ſome delightful and pictureſque deſcriptions, as well as uſeful information on the hiſtory, conſtitution, population, military, civil and religious ſtate, the productions of the country, its relation to the neighbouring ſtates, the manufacture of ſalt, its cuſtoms, and the cultivation of the arts. The whole is intermixed with amuſing and curious anecdotes on the court of Saltzburg, the ſtate of muſic in this country, and many other intereſting objects. The ſtyle is eaſy and perſpicuous, particularly in parts where the unaccuſtomed objects to be deſcribed, and unuſual appellations, might have occaſioned ſome difficulties of expreſſion.

Voyage d'un Allemand à Paris, &c. The Journey of a German to Paris, and his Return through Switzerland. 8vo. Berne.—The author, M. Heinzmann of Ulm, had attracted the attention of his government by a warm injudicious attachment to the 'new principles,' and of courſe *choſe* to paſs great part of the year 1798 at Paris. He there collected a variety of anecdotes, tales of the day, without much diſcrimination, and added a number of reflexions on the events of the year 1798, on the war, on the conduct of the directory, &c.

Tableau de Rome, &c. A Deſcription of Rome; Philoſophical Obſervations on the preſent State of that Metropolis, its Government, Legiſlature, Religious Worſhip, the Character and Manners of the Inhabitants. By M. Olivier Polè (of Naples). Tranſlated from the Italian. 8vo.—This little

pamphlet (for it consists of but eighty pages) contains the author's observations on Rome, during a residence of eleven months. The objects of his attention are sufficiently explained in the title, but we find nothing particularly new or interesting in the work.

Notices et Extraits, &c. Accounts and Extracts from the MSS of the National and other Libraries, published by the National Institute; being a Continuation of the Accounts and Extracts read to the Committee of the former Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres. Vol. V. 4to. Paris.—We have noticed the former volumes of this valuable collection in different parts of our Journal. The fifth volume commences with an account of the MS of Suidas's Lexicon, by M. Brequigny, and of several Greek MSS on chemistry and alchymy, by M. Ameilon. M. Levesque has collated the MS Anacreon of the Vatican with H. Stephens's edition, and M. Camus has communicated two articles full of bibliographic and philological remarks. The first relates to a MS of Aristotle's History of Animals; and the second, four MSS of a work in verse, presented by Emanuel Philé to Michael Paleologos. M. du Theil gives an account of a panegyric on the Holy Virgin, and of twenty-nine letters, composed by Theodore the Hyrtacynian. M. Langles has communicated three articles, the most interesting of which relates to the History of the celebrated Gengis Khan. M. Langles is employed on the subject of the Mantchou Tartar language; and gives an account of two hundred works in this tongue, accumulated in the National Library, promising also grammars and dialogues in it. He adds a short 'notice' of a collection of pieces in Turkish, Arabic and Persian, which contain many traits of history. M. Brequigny describes a MS which promised a new chronicle of Idacia, but which was published by Canisius before the edition of Sirmond. MM. Keralio, Camus, &c. give an account of the history of France in the middle age, and M. le Grand d'Aussy has explained, more particularly, the manners and customs of France in different centuries. This work does great credit to the national press. A variety of Arabian and Mantchou characters are elegantly printed or engraved.

Soirées Litéraires, &c. Literary Evenings, or New Translations of the most beautiful Pieces of Antiquity, &c. Vol. XIX. 8vo. Paris.—This, though styled the 19th volume, is still a separate work. It is a continuation of the Children's Library, and has appeared under different titles, as, The Evenings of the Hermitage, Evenings at Home, The Friend of Parents, Rambles, &c. some of which are translated from the English. The contents of this volume rise a little beyond the period of youth; since, after an invocation to Peace, we find an analysis of the work of Grotius De Jure Belli et Pacis. The

next article relates to Daniel Heinſius, whoſe tragedy of Herod the author has already tranſlated for the preſent collection. Next follows an extract from the Latin Menippean ſatire; and bibliographical notes, reſpecting unknown authors, from the ſame compiler: the latter had been often requeſted of him, to complete the biographical dictionaries, and are now firſt tranſlated into French. To theſe curious details are added the ſtate of literature in Belgium, from the tenth to the ſeventeenth century, followed by a table of the univerſities of Leyden, Douay, and Louvain, with an account of the learned men they have furniſhed. A Dialogue on Peace, where ſhe is ſuppoſed to ſpeak out of a tomb in which ſhe has been buried, and opinions on ſome new works, conclude this ſtrange unequal farrago.

Ariſtotelis Opera omnia, Græcè. Ad optimorum Exemplarium Fidem recenſuit, Annotationem Criticam, Librorum Argumenta, et novam Verſionem Latinam adjecit J. Th. Buhle. Vol. V. 8vo. Straſburg, ex Societate Bipontina.—We notice this volume juſt to remark, that the publication of the excellent collection of Claſſics which formerly appeared at Deux-Ponts is now transferred to Straſburg, under the care of profeſſor Euler, as before. M. Buhle, who is a profeſſor at Göttingen, explains, in the preface, the cauſes of the delay of this volume, which contains the Rhetoric and the Poetics of Ariſtotle, to which a Latin tranſlation is added in the margin.

Nouveaux Dialogues des Morts, &c. New Dialogues of the Dead, between the moſt famous Actors in the French Revolution, and various celebrated Men, ancient and modern. By F. Pagès. 8vo.—This work contains eighteen dialogues between thoſe already dead, and eight between living perſons. The interlocutors of the firſt kind are Demoſthenes and Mirabeau; Charles I. and Louis XVI; Catiline and Robeſpierre; Danton and Couthon; Bailly and Maleſherbes; Racine and Roucher; Barnave and Briſſot. Of the ſecond kind are Pitt and Fox, cardinal Maury and *the grand-maſter of the Order of Malta*; La Fayette, Dumouriez, Pichegru, and Suwarrow (now diſqualified for this claſs), &c. The characters are not however, in general, well underſtood or well ſupported.

Voyage de Vingt-quatre Heures, &c. Travels of Twenty-four Hours. By A. H. Kératry. 12mo. with Plates.—A derviſe deſired a ſultan to plunge his head into a tub of cold water, and the moment of immerſion was expanded to the events of a long and unhappy life. Thus M. Kératry and his prototype, Sterne, could extend a few hours through numerous pages. Sterne has hitherto, however, been unrivaled in England, and is ſtill ſo in France; but the preſent author has adopted his pure morality and genuine philanthropy. He trifles alſo with eaſe and freedom, and ridicules the follies of the age

with great propriety and addreſs. His epiſodes and digreſſions, like thoſe of Sterne, are too numerous, and, like thoſe of the facetious Yorick, not always equally happy or intereſting.

Voyage à Mortain, &c. A Journey to Mortain, in Proſe and Verſe, addreſſed to a Lady, by Louis Dubois, Citizen of Lizieux. 12mo. Alençon and Paris.—This journey is a feeble imitation of that of Chapelle, which it will be always difficult to forget, and dangerous to imitate.

Ardingello et les Iſles de la Félicité, &c. Ardingello and the Happy Iſlands, an Italian Hiſtory of the Sixteenth Century. Tranſlated from the German by Welzien and Faye. 12mo. Paris.—Since France has poſſeſſed ſome of the moſt valuable remains of the ancient ſculptures and painters, remains, in the language employed to ſoften robbery, 'which victory has confided to her,' it was neceſſary to give ſome information of their merit and value—'to hint (in the language of our own Bayes) the plot to the boxes.' Freſcobaldi, therefore, proſcribed in his own country, travels through Italy under the name of Ardingello, and deſcribes with enthuſiaſm and taſte the works of Raphael, Corregio, Michael Angelo, &c. The dryneſs of criticiſm is, however, relieved by the adventures of young Ardingello, which are nevertheleſs, on the whole, inſipid and unintereſting.

Contes et Opuſcules. Tales and Poems, in Verſe and Proſe, followed by ſome fugitive Pieces by Andrieux, of the National Inſtitute. 12mo. Paris.—This collection of M. Andrieux is humorous and pleaſing. The author imitates the lively careleſs manner of Voltaire, whom his flatterers aſſure him he equals. Whether a more ſerious age may make pleaſantries leſs enchanting we know not, but *we* can ſcarcely ſee ar eſemblance. Voltaire's was a ſtudied eaſe and grace, even in his ſlighteſt works—our author's a ſlovenly deſhabille.

Les Helvétiens, &c. The Helvetians; a Poem in Eight Cantos, with Hiſtorical Notes. By C. F. P. Maſſon. 12mo. Paris.—In theſe ages of indolence, an epic poem of ſix or ſeven thouſand lines forms an epoch which will not ſoon be forgotten. It is however a ſingular compoſition. The poem itſelf is a narrative; the fabulous part, or the machinery, allegorical; and we do not think any part of it highly poetical or pleaſing. The ſubject of it is the war carried on by Charles the Raſh, duke of Burgundy, in the time of Louis XI. who terminates his career, and fortunately the poem, at the battle of Nanci, in 1477. The whole is told more ſimply, and in a much more intereſting manner, by his vaſſal Commines. Liberty is hackneyed through the whole piece; but we fear the Swiſs feel the contraſt too forcibly to be highly pleaſed with M. Maſſon's epic.

Idylles et Poëmes Champêtres de Geſner, avec la Traduc-

tion, &c. Idyllia and a Rural Poem of Geſner, with an interlineal Tranſlation by M. Boulard. 2 vols. 1800.—This tranſlation is a ſupplement to thoſe formerly publiſhed, in the ſame manner, by the ſame author, under the title of an 'Elementary Courſe of the German Language.' The tranſlation of the fables of Leſſing was very ſucceſsful. At the end are ſome pages of moral maxims in the Daniſh language, with an interlineal tranſlation in French; and the author means to publiſh other Daniſh and Swediſh works in the ſame manner. At the end of the volume the German is publiſhed ſeparately.

Œuvres de J. M. Ph. Roland, &c. The Works of Madame Roland, Wife of the Ex-Miniſter of the Interior, containing her Memoirs, an Account of her private Life, &c. her Correſpondence, Philoſophical and Literary Works, Travels, &c.: to which is prefixed a Preliminary Diſcourſe, by L. A. Champagneux. 3 vols. 8vo. with a Portrait by Nicolet.—The life of madame Roland, ſuppoſed to be, perhaps with truth, the miniſter, while her huſband was the puppet, is well known to the Engliſh reader from the tranſlation. We have only to notice the additions not yet publiſhed in our language. The firſt of theſe is 'Advice to my Daughter;' then follows an hiſtorical account of the revolution, which contains ſome ſecret, and ſome myſterious, anecdotes; and next, her laſt thoughts on the evening previous to her execution are ſubjoined. We have always conceived, that when theſe related to extraneous ſubjects, ſome oſtentation dictated her employment and the publication. There is ſcarcely more than one character that can be wholly indifferent at that awful moment,—the atheiſt, who thinks it the laſt of his exiſtence and conſciouſneſs; nor can even he always bear to look with apathy on the deprivation of what he may at leaſt think advantages, though he will not admit them to be bleſſings. The detached ſubjects are—'The Soul,' 'Melancholy,' 'Solitude,' 'Religion,' 'Love,' 'Senſibility,' 'Liberty,' 'Socrates;' her journey to Saucis, and her other journeys in Switzerland and England. The laſt is peculiarly intereſting, from the excellent pictureſque deſcriptions it contains. On the whole, we ſtill think, as we always have thought, that madame Roland acted a part, though probably without being conſcious of it. She was raiſed above nature, and walked on the air—to her ſcaffold.

Eloge de Waſhington, &c. Eulogy on Waſhington. By J. F. Dubrocea. 12mo.—The author ſpeaks of general Waſhington only hiſtorically, and thinks this the beſt eulogy. 'To ſay what a great man has done, to ſay it with dignity and zeal, is all that is required from a panegyriſt.'

GERMANY.

Vertheidigung des Hygrometers, &c. Defence of the Hygrometer, and De Luc's Theory of Rain. By L. C. Lichtenberg, Counſellor of Legation, and F. Kries, Profeſſor at Gotha. 8vo. 1800. Göttingen.—This publication owes its origin to a prize-eſſay, written by Mr. Zylius, and ſanctioned by the academy of the ſciences at Berlin, in the year 1795. In that eſſay the whole ſyſtem of hygrometry, as well as De Luc's theory of rain, was attempted to be refuted, while its author endeavoured to re-eſtabliſh the old doctrine reſpecting the ſolution of water in the atmoſphere. M. Lichtenberg, whoſe memory will ever be dear to men of ſcience, terminated his literary career with this production of his verſatile genius, which ſoared alike through the enchanting regions of belles-lettres as the abſtruſe though more uſeful departments of phyſics. His inexhauſtible fund of wit and humour ranked him among the moſt lively writers of the age; while his comprehenſive and accurate knowledge of Nature, in her inmoſt receſſes, entitled him to the general reſpect of his graver contemporaries, and of the numerous pupils who, for a long ſeries of years, crowded his lectures on experimental philoſophy in the univerſity of Göttingen.—The preſent work, however, appears to be written with a conſiderable degree of indignation and acrimony; in a ſtyle, indeed, very different from the profeſſor's former compoſitions, which generally abounded with pleaſantry and good-humour, though they were occaſionally marked by pointed ſatire and ſevere criticiſm. He is decidedly of opinion that the Royal Academy of Sciences has undeſervedly beſtowed the premium on M. Zylius, without, however, having compromiſed its learned members. And this apparent paradox M. Lichtenberg has endeavoured to explain by anſwering the following problem, which was propoſed by the prize-eſſayiſt, in his memoir read before the ſociety, and ordered to be printed:—'Whence do we learn, that all vapours are either pointed out by the hygrometer, or muſt have totally diſperſed?'—To this queſtion our author gives a very explicit and circumſtantial anſwer, the reſult of which is as follows:—'The hygrometer,' ſays M. Lichtenberg, 'ſupports itſelf, in all its degrees between 0 and 100, *not* by its affinity to free water, but by its relation to vapour, in its different temperatures, as well as its reſpective diſtances from its maximum, through theſe variations of temperature. *Free* water, in the ſmalleſt quantity, always raiſes the hygrometer to 100°; and this effect is the *only* criterion of ſuch water. Thoſe who maintained the contrary, whether in the year 1795, or even in 1794, prior to the printing of this eſſay, betrayed an unpardonable ignorance of every progreſſive diſcovery made by the greateſt men of

the age; while I am convinced that my aſſertions are conſonant with the opinion of every inquirer who underſtands the ſubject.'

Philoſophiſche Abhandlungen, &c. Philoſophical Eſſays on the Prevalence of Irreligion; together with Propoſals for a rational Religious Education. By T. Gutman. Vol. I. of his poſthumous Works. 8vo. Zerbſt. 1800.—This is another production of a judicious and enlightened clergyman, who has deeply reflected on the moſt intereſting ſubject that can engage the attention of mankind. The author is of opinion that the frequent complaints which aſſault us reſpecting the irreligion of the preſent age have ariſen chiefly from the almoſt general practice of confounding true religion with the eſtabliſhed church faith; and that ſuch complaints would gradually ceaſe, if morality and religion were repreſented not merely as amiable, but rather as dignified and venerable objects of purſuit. He recommends the cultivation of political ſcience, together with the ſtudy of man, in his relation as a ſubject of the ſtate; he enjoins the advantage of eſtabliſhing a certain diſintereſtedneſs of ſoul from an early period of life. But ſociety will then alone be moſt happy when the ſymbols of faith ſhall contain only the fundamental principles of morals and religion. Theſe reflexions lead him to the queſtion which in a manner ſpontaneouſly occurs while treating of religious education: '*What is the chief end of the preſent exiſtence of man?*' In anſwering this problem, he firſt attempts to prove the neceſſity of a religious education for attaining that end, from the influence of religion on the moral character and happineſs of man; he ſhows that a moral ſyſtem of religion, and not a religious ſyſtem of morals, can alone conduct us aright to the ultimate object of our creation: that ſuch an education muſt not be founded on a *mere* belief in revelation; becauſe this implicit reliance would generate ſuperſtition, diſtruſt of the cleareſt dictates of reaſon, a propenſity to bigotry, fanaticiſm, and infuriated ſectariſm, while it could not fail to be detrimental to the exerciſe of a true and unreſtrained moral principle. Hence he derives the propriety of *concluding* a religious education with a rational explanation of the ſacred writings; and, contrary to the prevailing method, deprecates the cuſtom of initiating *children* into the myſteries of the Bible. The Bible he ventures to pronounce a collection of religious documents bequeathed to poſterity by men more or leſs enlightened by nature, and intended to inſtruct us in the knowledge of the primitive world; and conſequently that we are entitled to inquire into the authenticity of their accounts. There is a ſtrange intermixture in this publication of reverence for revealed religion, and the indefeaſible right of human ſcrutiny carried to its utmoſt extreme. We do not know whether the orthodox or the ſceptic will be moſt pleaſed with it; but we can eaſily diſcover in the

author's mind an attachment to the Kantian theology: and we cannot but ſtrongly diſcourage the tranſlation of all ſuch works as the preſent, which contain pretended maxims of pure reaſon, and novel propoſitions tending to increaſe the number of vague ſceptics, or, in other words, infidels, deſtitute of principles, and conſequently of morality.

Der Bericht des Johannes von Jeſu dem Meſſia. The Goſpel of St. John reſpecting Jeſus the Meſſiah. Tranſlated, with Remarks, by J. A. Bolten, Firſt adjunct Paſtor at the Metropolitan Church of Altona. 8vo. Altona.—The principal object of the preſent work is to prove that Jeſus is the true Meſſiah, and that the memoirs of his life, by St. John, were originally written in the Syriac language. As we cannot enter upon an inveſtigation of the merits of this conjecture, by the confirmation or refutation of which the authenticity of the goſpel will not be affected, we muſt acknowledge that M. Bolten's tranſlation poſſeſſes great merit; and, as the remarks ſubjoined to it form a perpetual commentary, it will be read with ſatisfaction by every claſſical divine. But though we differ from the commentator, who endeavours to perſuade us, by a variety of paſſages tranſlated into Syriac, that his hypotheſis is well founded, yet we admit that the Greek dialect of St. John abounds in *Syriaciſms*. The ingenious tranſlator, however, has thus rendered great ſervice to Oriental literature; as he has not neglected to conſult on all difficult paſſages the different verſions compoſed by Eaſtern writers. According to his opinion, it was the intention of St. John to tranſmit to poſterity not only a ſhort and authentic biography of Jeſus, together with the ſubſtance of his moral doctrine, but alſo to convince the infidels of his divine miſſion, and to prevail upon them to embrace the Chriſtian religion.

Muſen Almanach, &c. The Almanack of the Muſes for 1800. Publiſhed by Seiller. 16mo. Tubingen.—This little annual publication is accompanied with a calendar; but its moſt intereſting part is ſome pleaſing and elegant poetry. The firſt is a long poem in ſix cantos, entitled 'The Siſters of Leſbos.' It fills 182 pages, and is adorned with five elegant engravings, deſigned by Meyer and engraved by Böttiger of Dreſden. The ſtory is intereſting, even without the aid of poetry or ornament. The laws of Leſbos gave all the property to the elder ſiſter, and the younger ones depended on her, and were reduced almoſt to a ſtate of ſervitude. Simætha, however, diſtinguiſhed for her beauty, her tenderneſs, and genius, treated her younger ſiſter Lycoris as a friend. She had been deprived of her lover by ſhipwreck, while engaged in commercial purſuits, but his place in her heart was ſoon ſupplied by Diocles. On a further acquaintance Diocles could not, however, reſiſt the ſuperior graces of the young Lycoris, who, on her ſide, was equally enamoured of Diocles. Simætha ſaw this,

and took the generous reſolution of ſacrificing her own happineſs to her ſiſter's, ſhould the attachment, as ſhe ſuſpected, prove mutual. This was ſoon diſcovered; for Lycoris fainted at the altar, on her ſiſter's proceeding to marry Diocles; and Simætha, now convinced, burned her own garlands, and perſuaded her father to unite the two lovers.

Moſt of the authors are diſtinguiſhed only by initial letters; but the editor (M. Schiller), MM. Matheſon, Koſegarten, and ſome other poets of the firſt claſs, are particularly pointed out and ſufficiently known.

HOLLAND.

Déſcription de quelques Appareils Chimiques, &c. Deſcription of ſeveral new Chemical Machines for an Apparatus, improved by the Teylerian Society; together with Experiments made with that Apparatus. By M. Van Marum, Doctor of Philoſophy and Medicine. 4to. with Plates. Haarlem.—Although the experiments here related have partly been publiſhed before, eſpecially that in chap. I. reſpecting the compoſition of water, ſuppoſed to conſiſt of oxygen and hydrogen, which, if ſatisfactorily demonſtrated, is the grand pillar of the French antiphlogiſtic theory, and the particulars of which, together with an account of the apparatus employed on the occaſion, were firſt publiſhed in 'Berthollet's Annales de Chimie,' for February 1792; yet we are much indebted to the ingenious Van Marum for this inſtructive publication, containing a ſummary of the chemical purſuits to which the philoſophers of Haarlem have directed their attention. In the ſecond chapter we find a deſcription of a more ſimplified hydroſtatic gaseometer; which was likewiſe announced in the work before quoted, for September 1792. Chap. III. treats of an apparatus adapted for convenient gas-receivers, to inſtitute a variety of experiments. Chap. IV. deſcribes another apparatus, by which the generation of phoſphoric acid is proved, from the combuſtion of phoſphorus in oxygen gas. Chap. V. contains an account of an apparatus to prove that carbonic acid is produced by the combuſtion of carbon in oxygen gas. Chap. VI. an apparatus for analyſing the productions obtained from oils ſubjected to combuſtion. Chap. VII. experiments on the decompoſition of ſpirit of wine, with the deſcription of an apparatus. The ſubſequent four chapters contain explanations of ſimilar contrivances, namely, one for the oxydation of mercury and other metals which eaſily aſſume the liquid form; another, for the oxydation of iron; a third, for demonſtrating that ſeveral dropping fluids adopt the gaseous form when they are expoſed to an air ſufficiently rarefied; and laſtly, a deſcription of a very ſimple air pump, which is adapted not only for a quick and complete extraction of air, but likewiſe for its condenſation. On the whole, this work amply evinces the

laudable and unabated zeal of its author; who, notwithſtanding the political convulſions under which his country is now groaning, continues to cultivate the uſeful ſciences, while he gives us new proofs of his taſte and erudition, equally creditable to the inſtitution over which he preſides, and to his oppreſſed countrymen.

Verzameling van Rapporten, &c. A Collection of the Reports and Tranſactions relative to the Interſections and Water-works which have been carried into effect ſince the Convention of 1771, for the Promotion of internal Navigation, as well as with a view to prevent the Inundations of open Rivers by a better regulated Diſtribution of their Waters. Publiſhed at the Expence of the Provincial Committee of Holland, 2 vols. Folio, with Plates.—This ſplendid national work contains Byland's labours in interſecting and draining the rivers Waal and Yſſel; it proves that the ſinking republic ſtill poſſeſſes excellent hydrotechnical architects, as well as public ſpirit and reſources to undertake and publiſh magnificent works; in ſhort, that the ſcience which has moſtly contributed to Holland's former ſplendor and greatneſs is not yet entirely neglected. The learned editor of this publication, Mr. Brunings, the preſident of the bureau for regulating the water-works of the Batavian republic, deſerves our thanks, as well as thoſe of poſterity, for having preſented the world with this valuable collection, of which he has promiſed a ſpeedy continuation.

Verhandelingen van het Genootſchap, &c. Tranſactions of the Society for defending the Chriſtian Worſhip, eſtabliſhed at the Hague, for the Year 1797.—Beſides the uſual introduction, in which the diſtribution of prizes, together with the new queſtions propoſed on the third of Auguſt are announced for the ſubſequent year, and two other treatiſes to which the reſpective gold and ſilver medals were adjudged, we meet here with a deſultory and tireſome oration of Rümmerink, who endeavours to prove that Jeſus Chriſt, being the principal object of hiſtory, as far as this is contained in the Bible, is peculiarly entitled to our attention. The Dutch orator is very diffuſe in his arguments; he dwells particularly on the ſeed of the woman, who was deſtined to bruiſe the head of the ſerpent, or, allegorically, of the devil; and gives, on the whole, ſufficient proofs of his incapacity to explain the ſymbolical doctrines of religion, and to apply them to moral purpoſes, according to the original intention of the ſacred writers.

Chriſtophori Saxi Oratio honoraria in Legis Regiæ Patronos, &c. An honorary (Thankſgiving) Oration reſpecting the Favourers of abſolute Monarchy, delivered in an Aſſembly of the Academical Senate, on the Abdication of his public Functions. By C. Sax. 4to. Utrecht.—Of this highly intereſting ſpeech, which was delivered by a republican veteran at the advanced age of eighty-four with all the ardour and

energy of youth, we are induced to give our readers a ſhort account. Whether we conſider the political complexion of this public addreſs, or the ſtrength of reaſoning ſupported by hiſtorical erudition in which it abounds, we cannot refrain from ſaying that it is one of the moſt extraordinary productions of the Dutch preſs. Although the venerable author is obviouſly prepoſſeſſed in favour of a republican form of government, and endeavours to repreſent monarchies in the moſt odious colours, yet we muſt differ from him as to the ſtability of the leading principles; becauſe the errors and defects he excluſively attributes to kings are equally imputable to the ariſtocratical and democratical conſtitutions, or rather to the perſons who are intruſted with power. But we do not heſitate to overlook all the virulent charges, dreſſed in oratorial flowers, of which this ſage orator has availed himſelf, as they are excluſively derived from ancient hiſtory, ſo that he ſcarcely alludes to modern times: ſuch conceſſions we are inclined to make the more readily, as a ſimilar ſpeech delivered ſeveral years ago, and couched in more abuſive language, by Peter Burman, is ſtill freſh in our memory. This writer is a determined enemy to the *lex regia*; and we muſt refer the curious reader to his oration, p. 110 of the Hague edition, where, among other aſſertions, he ſays 'in rebus publicis ſuavius vivi quam in regnis.' Our author previouſly endeavours to aſcertain what the advocates and panegyriſts of royaliſm underſtand by *lex regia*; he then ſubmits their opinion to the tribunal of reaſon and the hiſtory of empires, from which we are unable to draw any favourable concluſion, either reſpecting the moral origin or uſe of legal power; ſo that its hurtful tendency to mankind, as well as its inadmiſſibility, become equally conſpicuous; and laſtly, he endeavours to apply his acute obſervations to the newly-eſtabliſhed Batavian republic.

Reizen door Paleſtina, &c. Travels through Paleſtine, in the Form of entertaining Letters; with a new Map of the preſent Situation of that Country. By S. Van Emdre, Paſtor of Wageningen, &c. Vol. II. 8vo.—As we are not in poſſeſſion of the firſt volume of theſe Travels, we can ſpeak only of the letters contained in the ſecond. It begins with the ſeventh, in which the author deſcribes his journey from Jeruſalem to Nazareth; in the eighth, he gives an account of his excurſion from Nazareth to Mount Lebanon; in the ninth, he relates his expedition along the ſea-coaſt from north to ſouth; in the tenth, he treats of the climate of Paleſtine, its different ſeaſons, heat and cold, rain, dews, winds, &c.; in the eleventh, of its fertility in corn, vegetables, fruit-trees, its production of animals, birds, fiſhes, &c.; in the twelfth, of the inhabitants of Paleſtine, the Mahomedans, Chriſtians, Jews, Samaritans, and Druſes; laſtly, in the thirteenth letter, he deſcribes the manners and cuſtoms of its inhabitants, together with their implements

of agriculture, their houſes, dreſs, female ornaments, ſalutations, ceremonies at table, and various national peculiarities. The whole is illuſtrated by frequent quotations from Scripture, and ably contraſted with the accounts of other modern travellers.

Anthologia Græca, cum Verſione Latina Hugonis Grotii, &c. The Greek Anthology, with the Latin Verſion of Hugo Grotius, edited by H. De Boſch. 3 vols. 4to. Ultrajecti. It is publiſhed alſo in folio.—This valuable republication is ſomewhat debaſed by petty controverſy; for editors, as well as poets, are a *genus irritabile*. The tranſlations of Grotius, however, have never before appeared. Their eventful hiſtory is ſubjoined, and the copy employed was that of the younger Burman, collated with the original copy ſent to Holland to be printed juſt before the death of Grotius. A medallion of the tranſlator is prefixed in an engraved frontiſpiece, and followed by 112 elegiac verſes, addreſſed to the Genius of Grotius, by the editor. The Prolegomena of Grotius contain only thirteen pages, but they are intereſting and inſtructive, on the origin of the epigram, &c. The reſt of the firſt volume comprehends the firſt and ſecond book of Planudes, with the tranſlations of Grotius on the oppoſite page.

The ſecond volume is dedicated to Heyne, and M. De Boſch there explains the aſſiſtance he has procured for this edition. Theſe we ſhall enlarge on, if, as we deſign, we are able to reſume this work. The third and fourth books of Planudes follow.

The third volume is dedicated to Cornelius van Lennep and Daniel Hooft, friends of the author. It commences by an eulogy on friendſhip, a ſentiment too often cooled by a difference of political opinions, and inſtanced in that of Grotius and Heinſius. This volume contains the remainder of Planudes, viz. the fifth, ſixth, and ſeventh books, with four ſupplements. The firſt of theſe was publiſhed by Aldus Manutius at the end of the ſeventh book; but, as Grotius had exhauſted this ſupplement in the Franckfort edition, only the two epigrams which Henry Stephens had ſuppreſſed are now printed. The ſecond ſupplement is that of Henry Stephens, and contains ninety-three pages. The third contains the inſcriptions in verſe, extracted from Gruter; the fourth, forty-five epigrams from the Byzantine and other works collected by Salmaſius. Some of the Idyllia of Theocritus, with notes, various readings, &c. conclude the work.

Griekſch Leesboek voor eerſt Beginnenden, &c. Greek Exerciſes in Reading, deſigned for the Uſe of Beginners, together with a complete Regiſter of the Words which occur in it. On the Plan of the German Edition of F. Gedike. 8vo. —This is only a new edition of the well-known work ſtated in the title-page; and as it is reprinted for the uſe of the grammar-ſchools in Holland, where no ſuch ſchool-book had

hitherto been publiſhed, it has been provided with an appropriate Greek and Dutch regiſter of words and phraſes.

Callimachi Elegiarum Fragmenta, cum Elegiâ Catulli Callimacheâ, &c. Fragments of the Elegies of Callimachus; with an Elegy written by Catullus on that Author. Collected and illuſtrated by L. C. Valckenaer. Edited, and furniſhed with a Preface and the neceſſary Indexes, by J. Luzac. 8vo. Leyden.—Whoever remembers the encomium expreſſed by Valckenaer in one of his juvenile productions* on the collection of the Fragments of Callimachus, edited by our celebrated countryman Bentley, will expect to find in this volume the mature improvements of a veteran critic, who at an advanced age would not hazard the reputation he has juſtly acquired by his diverſified claſſical labours. Indeed ſuch expectations will be amply gratified. The Batavian critic and commentator of ancient claſſics has lately paid the debt of nature, and his academical chair is honourably filled by the editor of the preſent volume, profeſſor Luzac. In his 'Exercitationes Academicæ' he announces this work, 'conſummatiſſimum Valckenarii opus;' and we may ſafely add that the Britiſh claſſical reader will do juſtice to this learned foreigner, and acknowledge the ſuperiority of his edition over that of Bentley, or any other hitherto publiſhed. To ſupply the future biographer of Valckenaer with a few materials for ſo deſirable a work, we ſhall here obſerve that he has ſufficiently evinced his talents for claſſical criticiſm in his maſterly edition of the 'Fragments of Euripides;' but at a ſtill earlier period of life, in his contributions to 'Koppier's Obſervata Philologica;' and next, in his acute remarks on 'Erneſti's Callimachus.'

SWITZERLAND.

Récréations tirées de l'Hiſtoire Naturelle, &c. Amuſements drawn from Natural Hiſtory, tranſlated from the German of M. Wilheim, of Augſburg. Vol. I. of the Claſs of Inſects. 8vo. with Plates. Baſle.—We notice this work, though a tranſlation, becauſe it deſerves to be better known. It is an excellent elementary introduction to natural hiſtory, and the preſent volume is equally uſeful in the ſcience of entomology. It begins with a ſuitable introduction, and an inſtructive table relating to the coleopteræ. The plates are admirably coloured, and the whole ſeems to want nothing but a Latin and French table of the ſpecies contained in the volume.

DENMARK.

Entwurt einer Pflanzen Phyſiologie, &c. Outlines of a Phyſiology of Plants; founded upon the modern Theories of Natural Philoſophy and Chemiſtry. Tranſlated from the Daniſh, with many Additions and Alterations, by J. A. Mar-

* Vid. Not. ad Schol. Leidenſ. in Hom. Ill. xxii. v. 398, p. 72. where Valckenaer ſays of Bentley's edition of Callimachus, 'Opus eſt perfectiſſimum, quod homines publici reverentes à reliquiis poëtarum colligendis deterruit.'

kuſſen. 8vo. Copenhagen.—According to the preface, the author of this work propoſes to collect and arrange whatever has been written, obſerved, conteſted, and admitted as true, reſpecting the economy of plants, ſince we have been inſtructed by the works of Malpighi, Grew, Hales, Du Hamel, Bonnet, Ingenhouſz, Sennebier, Humboldt, Van Marum, Brugmans, Uſlar, and Grill. His principal intention avowedly is, to communicate to his countrymen the ſcattered reſults derived from a great number of obſervations and experiments; to combine them into a ſyſtematic order; and to point out the progreſs we have made in this important branch of phyſics, or the means of ſupplying the chaſms and deficiencies ſtill exiſting. From this explicit declaration it is obvious that, though the ſubject he has choſen does not widely differ from that implied in the 'Phytologia, or Philoſophy of Agriculture,' lately written by Dr. Darwin, the Daniſh naturaliſt does not venture into the ſame boundleſs field of theoretical ſpeculation, to furniſh us with any original hypotheſes or conjectures. Nor do we find that either the author or tranſlator has penetrated deeply into the receſſes of vegetable nature; and as to the merits of the latter, it even appears to us, from ſeveral of his ſhallow annotations, that he is not ſufficiently converſant with the principles of *modern* chemiſtry. Nevertheleſs this ſmall volume contains nearly all that relates to the economy of plants, and may be read with advantage by thoſe who are unacquainted with the authors before mentioned.

Commentatio de Liquoris Amnii aſperæ Arteriæ Fœtuum Humanorum Naturâ et Usû, &c. A Treatiſe on the Nature and Uſe of the Liquor Amnii found in the Trachea of the Human Fœtus, and its Influence on the Life of new-born Infants, as well as its Importance in determining doubtful Caſes in Medical Juriſprudence. With an Appendix, containing ſome general Obſervations on this remarkable Fluid. By P. Scheel, M. D. Copenhagen.—An inaugural diſſertation, which contains many original and inſtructive remarks. The ingenious author was induced to inſtitute this inquiry in conſequence of a diſcovery made by Meſſrs. Abildgardt, Heroldt, and Rafn, who found in the trachea of the brutal fœtus, namely, that of dogs and cows, a fluid ſimilar to the liquor amnii. On diſſecting and examining the bodies of ſeven infants, two of which were prematurely born with ſigns of life, though they died immediately after birth, and five, on the contrary, were ſtill-born, Dr. Scheel obſerved that the aſpera arteria contained more or leſs of a viſcid yellow or green coloured fluid: in one of theſe ſtill-born infants, after a difficult turn, the trachea was filled with a yellow and ſomewhat gelatinous fluid, in every reſpect analogous to the liquor amnii; in another caſe, where this liquor had acquired a dark green colour from the evacuated meconium, the trachea contained a fluid exactly ſimilar to the

former; and laſtly, in two other infants, one of which was ſmothered under heavy blankets immediately after birth, and for want of aſſiſtance, though it had doubtleſs reſpired for a ſhort time, while atmoſpheric air had been introduced, without ſucceſs, into the lungs of the other—the fluid of the trachea in both appeared foaming. He further remarked that this liquor bore a perfect ſimilarity to that of the amnion, in its colour, ſmell, taſte, and conſiſtence: his chemical experiments, made with the ſmall quantities he could obtain of this fluid, alſo convinced him that its conſtituent parts agreed with thoſe of the former.

SPAIN.

Cavanillis Icones, &c. Cavanilles' Plates and Deſcriptions of Plants which grow ſpontaneouſly in Spain, or are cultivated in its Gardens. Volumes IV. and V. Folio. Madrid.—We have only to notice the proſecution of this very ſplendid work, as we have mentioned the deſign and announced the former volumes. The fourth and fifth volumes are equally rich and beautiful with the preceding. They contain a deſcription of 240 new ſpecies, many of which belong to genera not before known, which are well deſcribed and ſcientifically eſtabliſhed. The deſcriptions are unuſually clear and exact. The country of each plant and the time of flowering are carefully diſtinguiſhed; and, at the end of each deſcription, obſervations reſpecting the uſe of the plant, as well as its connexion with or difference from other ſpecies of the ſame genus, are ſubjoined.

Pharmaciæ Elementa, &c. Elements of Pharmacy, founded on the Principles of modern Chemiſtry. By Francis Cardonnel, M. D. &c. Barcelona.—Elementary works of pharmacy adapted to the later diſcoveries are not common, nor ſhould we have expected to have received one of the beſt and moſt ſcientific from Spain. The preſent work nevertheleſs, though too ſhort, and, on the whole, incomplete, merits great commendation. It is divided into ſeven chapters. The firſt contains the preliminary pharmaceutical inſtructions. In the ſecond, the author treats of the compoſition of medicines in general. The third is confined to the choice and knowledge of ſimple drugs. The fourth, to the drying and preſerving vegetable ſubſtances, as well as the time they may be expected to retain their properties. This chapter is extremely uſeful and valuable. In the fifth the moſt common pharmaceutical operations are deſcribed. In the ſixth the officinal pharmaceutical preparations, and in the ſeventh extemporaneous preparations from phyſicians' preſcriptions, are conſidered. A pharmaceutiſt who would practice 'with diſtinction', ought, in M. Cardonnel's opinion, to have ſtudied mathematics, natural hiſtory, experimental philoſophy, and chemiſtry. The notes are valuable, and ſometimes extenſive. The author appears well acquainted with the lateſt improvements in chemical ſcience.

A REVIEW

OF

PUBLIC AFFAIRS,

FROM

the Beginning of SEPTEMBER, 1800, to the CLOSE of the YEAR and of the CENTURY.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

WHEN power and dominion attend the naval or military exertions of a community, and when a great increaſe of its wealth follows the extenſion of its commerce, that nation is ſuppoſed, in the ordinary eſtimate of human affairs, to be in a flouriſhing ſtate. But appearances are ſometimes fallacious; and external proſperity may be accompanied with interior miſery. Many individuals may riot in opulence, and dazzle the eyes of the populace with ſplendor and parade; others, by the medium of paper-credit, may be enabled to make fortunate ſpeculations, and to ſubſtitute real for fictitious wealth. But, notwithſtanding theſe flattering ſymptoms, the middle claſs in the ſame community may find great difficulty in procuring the comforts of life, and the inferior orders may frequently be haraſſed by a want even of the neceſſaries of ſubſiſtence. To theſe it can afford little gratification to be informed that the trade of the country is extenſive, when it is not ſo generally beneficial in its effects as with proper management it might be rendered. They can ſcarcely credit what they do not feel; or, if they fully admit the exiſtence of extraordinary wealth among their countrymen, they lament the imperfect uſe to which ſuch acquiſitions are applied: they lament that a channel, which ought to be wide and diffuſive, ſhould be narrowed by ſelfiſhneſs, avarice, and diſhoneſty. They have reaſon to complain, that, even in articles of the firſt neceſſity, the markets are ſwayed by rapacious traders, who, not content with moderate profit, combine to fix an enormous price, that they may rapidly enrich themſelves while the poor are ſtarving around them—who, in the midſt of plenty, create an artificial ſcarcity; or, if there ſhould be a real deficiency, aggravate its miſchievous effects by ſiniſter arts and un-

principled monopoly—and who, while they affect to be 'honorable men,' have not the leaſt pretenſions to the praiſe of humanity, probity, or patriotiſm. That the arts of ſuch men principally occaſioned that inordinate augmentation of the price of the neceſſaries of life, which formed a frequent topic of converſation at the beginning of the period comprehended in our preſent ſketch, few will venture to deny. That the war was another cauſe may alſo be affirmed, whatever may be ſaid by the advocates of anti-gallican hoſtility; for, if we draw an inſtance ſolely from the income-tax, which avowedly originated in the war, we muſt be ſenſible of the neceſſity of a general advance of price impoſed by that tax, which abridges the common comforts of a great number of individuals, who, even before that addition to their burthens, could ſcarcely provide for their ſubſiſtence. To theſe leading cauſes we may unfortunately add a third—the occurrence of ſeaſons leſs favourable than could have been wiſhed.

After the ſuppreſſion of the diſturbances ariſing from the cauſes which we have ſtated, the liverymen of London took the lead in petitioning his majeſty to convene the parliament without delay, that meaſures might be taken for the removal of the diſtreſs of his people. As it was not the act of the corporation, the king refuſed to receive the petition upon his throne, in conſequence of a reſolution which he had formed at the time of the American war, when remonſtrances were more frequent than they now are; but, when the common-council voted a petition for the ſame purpoſe, he graciouſly received it, and intimated that he had already given orders for an early meeting of the legiſlature. He afterwards publiſhed a proclamation, recommending rigid œconomy to his ſubjects.

The failure of the negotiations for peace embittered the diſappointment of thoſe who ſeverely felt the effects of the dearth of proviſion. The truce between France and Auſtria had led to a correſpondence between the conſular government and the Britiſh cabinet. Of that temporary communication we can now treat more particularly than the ſecreſy of the correſpondence allowed us to ſpeak in our laſt ſurvey. In conſequence of a notification from baron Thugut, that lord Minto (on the 9th of Auguſt) had ſignified the deſire of his Britannic majeſty to be included in the negotiation, M. Otto, the French agent or commiſſary for the exchange of priſoners in England, was authoriſed to demand an explanation of the propoſals of the court of London, and to requeſt that a truce ſhould be immediately concluded between the Britiſh and French armies and fleets. Captain George, in a conference with the agent, declared the king's readineſs to ſend a plenipotentiary to any place which might be appointed for a congreſs; but intimated, that an armiſtice, with regard to naval operations, had at

no time been adjuſted between Britain and France during a negotiation for peace, or before preliminaries had been ſigned; that it therefore could not be conſidered as a neceſſary ſtep to negotiation; and that, from the diſputes to which it might give riſe, it might even obſtruct rather than promote a pacification. M. Otto anſwered, that France would inſiſt on a truce with Great-Britain, and that, indeed, the continuance of the German armiſtice would depend on the concluſion of a ſimilar agreement with the Engliſh, as the advantages derivable from the latter would form an equivalent for the obvious diſadvantages of the truce with Auſtria. In a reply, dated the 4th of September, to a note from lord Grenville, he repreſented the intervention of England as giving ſuch a complexion to the queſtion of peace, that it was impoſſible for the French government to prolong the ſubſiſting armiſtice, unleſs his Britannic majeſty would render it common to the three powers; adding, that, if the propoſed truce ſhould not be concluded before the 11th of September, hoſtilities would be renewed with Auſtria, and the firſt conſul would no longer be able to conſent, with regard to that power, to any other than a ſeparate peace. He afterwards preſented a *projet* for an armiſtice, importing that the ſhips of Great-Britain and France ſhould enjoy a freedom of navigation, as before the war; that Belle-iſle, Malta, and Alexandria, ſhould be in a ſimilar predicament with Ulm, Philipſburg, and Ingolſtadt, all French or neutral veſſels being permitted to ſupply each garriſon with proviſions and ſtores; and that the ſquadrons which formed the blockade of Fluſhing, Breſt, Cadiz, and Toulon, ſhould return into their own harbours, or at leaſt retire from the reſpective coaſts. This plan was deemed by the Britiſh court too advantageous to the French; and lord Grenville, in a note to the commiſſary, condemned it as repugnant to the obvious and eſtabliſhed principle of an armiſtice, by which neither party ought to acquire freſh advantages or new means of annoying the enemy. He then offered a *contre-projet*, more nearly corresponding with that principle of equality on which alone his ſovereign would conſent to treat. It prohibited all means of defence from being conveyed into the iſland of Malta, or any of the ports of Egypt, but allowed the neceſſaries of life to be introduced for fourteen days at a time: it provided for the diſcontinuance of the blockade of Breſt, Toulon, and other French ports, but tended to prevent all naval or military ſtores from being conveyed thither by ſea, and the ſhips of war in thoſe ports from being removed to any other ſtation. Theſe propoſitions were not ſatisfactory to the French, who wiſhed to obtain much greater advantages. After arguing againſt the plan, their government offered this alternative:—If Great-Britain would agree to a ſeparate negotiation, her ſcheme would be

adopted; but, if ſhe ſhould inſiſt on a general negotiation, the French *projet* muſt be accepted. Lord Grenville, on the 20th of September, declared againſt all other terms than thoſe which the king had offered, and which, he ſaid, involved conſiderable ſacrifices on the part of Great-Britain. Otto now delivered a ſecond plan, by which, among other alterations, ſmall ſhips of war were to be allowed to go out of the French ports, and ſix frigates were to be permitted to ſail to Egypt, diſcharge their cargoes at Alexandria, and return without being ſearched. On the 25th, Mr. Hammond had a long conference with M. Otto; but the reſult was unfavourable to the wiſhes of the friends of peace. At length, on the 8th of October, the French agent intimated, that, as ſome important events had completely changed the baſis on which the propoſed truce was to have been eſtabliſhed, the general negotiation was at an end; but that the firſt conſul was diſpoſed to receive any overtures for a ſeparate treaty with Great-Britain. To this propoſal a decided negative was given; and thus the hope of a ſpeedy pacification for this country vaniſhed into air.

The conduct of the French government, on this occaſion, deſerves greater cenſure than that of the Britiſh court; or we may rather ſay, that no blame is imputable to the latter for the ill ſucceſs of the conferences and communications. The conceſſions of our miniſtry appear to have been carried to as great an extent as reaſon and honour could juſtify; while the French were too eagerly deſirous of advantage to pay a proper regard to the juſt principles of reciprocity, or to the eſtabliſhed law of nations.

That iſland, which the French ſo earneſtly wiſhed to retain, at length became ſubject to the power of their adverſaries. Brigadier-general Graham for ſome time ſuperintended the blockade of La Valette, the chief fortreſs of Malta; but the conqueſt was not achieved before major-general Pigot landed on the iſland with a reinforcement. Proviſions being very ſcarce, two frigates ſailed out of the harbour on the 24th of Auguſt, with a part of the garriſon; and one of them ſoon became a prize to the Engliſh. Alarmed at the increaſing difficulties of ſubſiſtence, Vaubois, the governor, called a council to deliberate on the ſtate of affairs; and it was the opinion of the officers, that, as only bread remained for the ſupport of the garriſon, and no hope of ſuccour exiſted, no diſgrace could be incurred by a ſurrender. A capitulation was therefore propoſed; and, on the 5th of September, ſuch terms were adjuſted as allowed the conveyance of the troops to Marſeilles (though they were to be conſidered as priſoners of war), and provided for the protection and ſecurity of the inhabitants of all deſcriptions. Thus, after a blockade of two years, the French were diſpoſſeſſed of a poſt of high importance, an iſland formidably ſtrengthened both by art and nature.

At the time of the publication of this intelligence, an official ſtatement appeared of a naval enterpriſe, which had been repreſented in an objectionable point of view by the Spaniſh court. It being reported that two ſhips were receiving ſtores in the road of Barcelona for the relief of Malta, lord Keith ſent a detachment for the purpoſe of taking or deſtroying them. The attempt was as ſucceſsful as it was ſpirited. By the exertions of captain Hillyer and lieutenant Schomberg, the two ſhips (each of 22 guns) were captured with ſmall loſs. In the Spaniſh account of the action it was aſſerted, that a Swediſh captain had been compelled to receive into his veſſel a party of Britiſh officers and ſeamen, and to have it towed by chaloupes under the cannon of the batteries of Barcelona; that it was then employed in an attack upon the Spaniards, who, not ſuſpecting that a neutral ſhip had enemies on board, were unprepared for a reſolute defence of the two veſſels, and were conſequently ſurpriſed into a ſurrender. Such conduct was loudly condemned by the king of Spain, by whom the Swedes were inſtigated to demand ſatisfaction of the Britiſh court; but, as the alleged circumſtances do not appear to have occurred, no apology is neceſſary, nor can any conceſſions be expected.

Soon after the reduction of Malta, Curaçao, an iſland ſituated near the continent of South America, was ſurrendered by the Dutch to the ſubjects of Great-Britain, for temporary occupancy rather than for permanent poſſeſſion. A body of French had ſeiſed the weſtern part of the iſland, and proceeded to take meaſures for the acquiſition of the whole; but the governor, preferring Britiſh to French protection, took an opportunity of informing captain Watkins of the Néreïde, that he would permit the Engliſh to garriſon the forts which commanded the capital, if they would aſſiſt him in the expulſion of the French. The intruders threatened to ſtorm the principal fort; but they prudently forbore to execute their menaces; and, on the 22d of September, their whole body retired from the iſland.

Eleven French and ſeven Spaniſh ſhips were found in the harbour, beſides many other veſſels. In the agreement of ſurrender, it was ſtipulated that the inhabitants ſhould enjoy the rights and privileges allowed to the ſubjects of his Britannic majeſty in the Weſt Indies; and, in particular, that they might have the benefit of a free trade with the Spaniards in that part of the world.

In the following month, lord Keith and ſir Ralph Abercrombie appeared with a fleet and army in the neighbourhood of Cadiz, for the purpoſe of deſtroying all the veſſels in that port, and inflicting other damage on the Spaniards. Alarmed at the appearance of this armament, at a time when a peſtilential diſorder raged in the town, the governor, in a letter which was both pathetic and ſpirited, conjured

the Britiſh commanders not to add the horrors of war to the miſeries of diſeaſe, declaring at the ſame time, that, if an attack ſhould be made, the reſiſtance would be of the moſt obſtinate nature, and might perhaps terminate in the ruin of the aſſailants. Lord Keith and his military aſſociate replied, that, as the ſhips in the port were to be employed in prolonging the calamities of Europe, an attack could only be averted by a ſurrender of thoſe veſſels. This propoſal being rejected by the governor with indignation, arrangements were made for a deſcent; but, when it was found that the precautions of the enemy, and the ſtrength of the works, were adequate to the defence of the place, the danger of infection being alſo taken into conſideration, the Britiſh armament retired.

Among other incidents connected with the maritime ſervice, the capture of two frigates in Auguſt, and the havoc made near Ancona, may be briefly mentioned.

La Concorde and La Médée, after a courſe of depredation on the coaſt of Africa, were cruiſing near the Braſilian coaſt, when they were deſcried by captain Bulteel of the Belliqueux, who ſoon enforced the ſurrender of the former, while the latter ſtruck her colours to two of the ſhips under his conduct. On the Adriatic coaſt, captain Rickett took ſevere vengeance, by order of lord Keith, for the arreſt of an officer who was carrying diſpatches. The municipality of Ceſenatico having been guilty of this breach of the law of nations, all the veſſels within the mole were ſunk or burned, the two piers conſumed, and the harbour rendered uſeleſs.

From theſe exploits our attention is called to the more important concerns of legiſlative policy. When the parliament aſſembled, on the 11th of November, the king expreſſed his earneſt deſire, that, by the care and wiſdom of the two houſes, all ſuch meaſures might be adopted as ſhould appear beſt calculated to alleviate the ſevere preſſure occaſioned by the high price of proviſions, and to prevent the danger of its recurrence, by promoting, as far as poſſible, the permanent extenſion and improvement of agriculture. He hinted, that the beſt mode of encouraging the importation of all kinds of grain required the earlieſt conſideration, and that the ſtate of the laws reſpecting the commerce in the various articles of proviſion would properly form the next object of deliberation. If the members ſhould have reaſon to think that the 'evil neceſſarily ariſing from unfavourable ſeaſons had been increaſed by any undue combinations, or fraudulent practices, for the ſake of adding unfairly to the price,' he hoped that they would effectually provide for the prevention of ſuch abuſes; intimating, at the ſame time, that they ought to diſtinguiſh practices of this nature from the 'regular and long-eſtabliſhed courſe of trade which experience had ſhown to be indiſpenſable, in the preſent ſtate of ſociety, for the ſupply of the markets,

and for the ſubſiſtence of his people.' Referring to the late diſturbances, he declared that 'thoſe malicious and diſaffected perſons, who cruelly took advantage of the exiſting difficulties to excite the people to a violation of the laws and of the public peace, were in the preſent circumſtances doubly criminal, as ſuch proceedings tended to increaſe, in the higheſt degree, the evil complained of, and endangered the permanent tranquillity of the country, on which the well-being of the induſtrious claſſes of the community muſt always principally depend.' Paſſing to the ſubject of the recent communications between him and the French government, he aſſerted his earneſt deſire of peace, and lamented that his wiſhes had been fruſtrated by the determination of the enemy to enter only on a ſeparate negotiation, in which he could not engage, conſiſtently with public faith, or with a due regard to the permanent ſecurity of Europe. Whenever the diſpoſition of the French ſhould afford a proſpect of an honourable peace, he would promote it to the utmoſt of his power; but, while ſuch a peace was unattainable, he truſted that his parliament would ſupport him with the ſame firmneſs and loyalty which had been ſignally evinced during the whole progreſs of a very important conteſt.

The addreſs of thanks for this ſpeech was propoſed by the duke of Somerſet, who chiefly recommended an inquiry into the beſt means of reducing the enormous price of proviſions. Lord Hobart ſpoke more copiouſly on the ſame ſubject, and denied that the evil aroſe from the war. On the topic of peace, he obſerved, that, though he had voted againſt treating with Bonaparte while the conſular government was in its infancy, it might not be impolitic to negotiate at preſent; but that his majeſty ought by no means to agree to a ſeparate treaty. Lord Holland concurred in opinion with the duke of Portland, who, in a letter communicated to the public, condemned the clamour which had been excited againſt ſuppoſed monopoliſts, and deprecated all attempts to interfere in the operations of the dealers in corn. But with the general conduct of the miniſters he continued to be ſo diſguſted, that he conſidered their removal from office as neceſſary for the honour and welfare of the country, and the attainment of a ſolid or ſecure peace. The majority of the peers, however, did not coincide with his lordſhip, whoſe amendment, relative to a change of adminiſtration, was rejected on a diviſion.

In the houſe of commons, when ſir John Wrotteſley and Mr. Dickenſon had moved and ſeconded an addreſs—when ſir Francis Burdett Jones had launched into a philippic againſt the miniſtry, and Mr. Robſon had urged the neceſſity of peace as a remedy for famine and other national calamities—Mr. Pitt diſcuſſed the two leading points of the king's ſpeech. For the relief of the public, in a time of great ſcarcity and diſtreſs, he propoſed two modes, which,

he thought, were ſimple, practical, and ſafe: one was, an increaſe of importation; the other was a combination of œconomy with the uſe of ſubſtitutes for bread. A much better effect, he ſaid, would reſult from theſe methods, than from any experiment which, on pretence of correcting the evils of monopoly, might ſtrike at the freedom of trade, and circumſcribe the application of induſtry and capital. Of the real cauſes of the high price of corn, and other neceſſaries, ſome doubts might be entertained; but he was confident that the war had little, if any, influence in producing ſuch an advance. At the beginning of the laſt harveſt we had a ſmaller ſtock of grain than uſual, in conſequence of the general failure of the crops of the year 1799; and, as the late crop of wheat was alſo ſmall, the greatneſs of the price might in ſome meaſure be accounted for. From theſe circumſtances, he did not imagine that a rapid diminution of price could be expected; but, the more gradual it would be, it was the more likely to be permanent. With regard to the negotiation, he contended that the French had not acted in a fair and honourable manner, or exhibited any ſymptoms of a ſincere deſire of peace, and that public faith and policy concurred to juſtify the conduct of the cabinet.—Mr. Sheridan reprobated the war as the chief cauſe of the diſtreſs of the people, and controverted in ſome other points the arguments of the miniſter.—Mr. Grey, after a very ſevere condemnation of the plans and proceedings of the court, moved for the omiſſion of that part of the addreſs which breathed the ſpirit of continued war: but the houſe refuſed to agree to any alteration.

The commons proceeded, with that diligence which the urgency of the caſe required, to the adoption of remedial meaſures. On the following day, they voted bounties on the importation of various kinds of grain; and a committee was appointed to inquire into the cauſes of the high price of proviſions. Bills were brought forward for preventing the exportation of articles of ſubſiſtence, and for other purpoſes connected with the expediency of ample ſupply.

As a detail of the intervening and attendant debates would exceed our limits, our readers, we hope, will be content with the information, that, in both houſes, the idea of fixing a *maximum* for corn was diſapproved, and the progreſs of relief was left to a more legitimate interference; that the reports of the committee ſuggeſted hints of uſeful regulation; that a motion from Mr. Sheridan, propoſing a renewal of negotiatory efforts, ſerved only to call forth new exertions of eloquence; that Mr. Tierney, after an extenſive review of naval, military, and financial concerns, moved in vain for an inquiry into the ſtate of the nation; and that the *habeas-corpus* act was again ſuſpended, though many ſpeakers ſtrongly denied the neceſſity of ſuch ſuſpenſion.

When the neceſſary bills had received the ſanction of the

legiſlature, the king, on the laſt day of the year, put an end to the ſeſſion. He predicted ſalutary effects from the meaſures which the two houſes had taken for the relief of the public; but, as the ſubject was not exhauſted, he hoped that it would be reſumed with the ſame ſpirit on the meeting of the imperial parliament. He then referred to the unjuſtifiable conduct of the Ruſſian emperor*, and hinted his intention of enforcing redreſs by ſpirited operations, if the ſteps which he had already taken ſhould not prove effectual. Before his majeſty retired, he ordered the chancellor to read a proclamation, declaring that the individuals who compoſed the expiring parliament ſhould be the members, on the part of Britain, of the parliament of the united kingdom of Great-Britain and Ireland, and that this imperial legiſlature ſhould aſſemble on the 22d day of January, 1801.

In honour of the union, various promotions were ordered, and many new titles were conferred; and the king held a grand council, in which ſome arrangements required by that great event were ſettled and enforced. To the meeting of the combined parliament the people look forward with eagerneſs and hope; and it muſt be the wiſh of every true patriot, that the firſt ſeſſion of the illuſtrious aſſembly may be the æra of returning peace and proſperity.

FRANCE.

When we lately treated of the affairs of France, politicians ſeemed to expect that a peace would ſoon be concluded between Auſtria and the republic. The emperor, finding himſelf endangered by the progreſs of the enemy, was willing to ſecure himſelf by negotiation; and the French expreſſed a readineſs to grant him ſuch terms as he had a right to expect, and alſo to admit his allies to the benefit of the propoſed conferences. Under the expectation that Great-Britain would be comprehended in the treaty, he declined a ratification of the preliminaries ſigned by the count de St. Julien. The French then menaced him with an immediate renewal of hoſtilities; and he ſeemed for a time diſpoſed to have recourſe to the ſame mode of deciſion. But he had ſcarcely joined the army, when he agreed to a prolongation of the armiſtice, in a convention which he authoriſed the count de Lehrbach to ſign at Hohenlinden; and, to give a ſtrong pledge of his pacific intentions, he even conſented to deliver up to the republican troops the fortreſſes of Philipſburg, Ulm, and Ingolſtadt, thus leaving his hereditary dominions in a great meaſure at the mercy of the enemy.

While the armiſtice continued, the conſular government attended with zeal to the preparations for an eventual reſumption of the conteſt, as well as to the concerns of inter-

* See the article of RUSSIA.

nal policy. The views of the diſaffected were checked by ſtrictneſs and vigilance: induſtry and merit, in various departments of art, were encouraged; and the ſciences were not neglected.

As it was the public wiſh that the generality of the emigrants ſhould be favoured, and that their concerns ſhould be adjuſted on a regular baſis, the miniſter of police prepared a report on the ſubject: and the conſuls, adopting his ſuggeſtions, promulgated a decree, providing for the eraſure of all the names from the liſt, and conſequently allowing the return of the emigrants, with an exception of thoſe who had borne arms againſt France, and of ſuch as had been employed in any branch of ſervice by the *ci-devant* French princes, or by the governments hoſtile to the republic. This decree was conſidered by ſome as too extenſive, by others as too limited; but it ſeems to have given ſatisfaction to the majority of the people.

A curious report, exhibiting a view of the ſtate of France and a retroſpect of the tranſactions of the year, was preſented to the legiſlative body on the 22d of November laſt. A gloomy ſketch was drawn of the ſtate of the republic at the time of the elevation of Bonaparte to the conſulate; and it was affirmed, that danger and diſtreſs rendered peace the firſt want and the moſt ardent wiſh of the nation. The fruſtration of that wiſh, chiefly by the animoſity of the Britiſh cabinet, tended to produce that indignant energy which led the French ſoldiers to new victories, and revived the drooping ſpirits of the people. Quickly was the rebellion in the weſt cruſhed; and the government, by allaying the diſcontent of the inhabitants, provided againſt the return of inſurrection. The general ſucceſs of the war exceeded all expectation. Four armies maintained themſelves in an uninterrupted chain, from the line formed by the Pruſſian neutrality to the centre of Italy. The guardian genius of France had ſaved the army of the eaſt from the execution of a compact which would have enſlaved it to England. Auſtria was again compelled to deſiſt from hoſtilities, and ſeemed to be no longer inclined to ſacrifice the tranquillity of the continent to the ambition of the deſpots of the ſeas. The French army and navy had been re organiſed and improved by judicious regulations. The conduct of the republic towards neutral ſtates manifeſted a greater degree of juſtice and impartiality than had before prevailed; and the principles which it recommended were ſuch as claimed univerſal imitation. The attention paid to every important concern was ſedulous and unrelaxed. The finances had been reſcued from a ſtate of confuſion, and would in future be ſubject to a regular ſyſtem, which would provide for every exigency, and re-eſtabliſh the national credit. A new code of civil legiſlation was on the point of being completed; the modes of public inſtruction had been improved; the

arts had been cultivated with redoubled zeal; trade and manufactures were reviving from a ſtate of languor; and a better proſpect began to open in every direction. Such were the ſtatements, views, and predictions, of the three counſellors of ſtate (Regnier, Najac, and Gouvion St. Cyr), who were ordered to give an account of the ſituation of the republic.

On the expiration of the truce, the court of Vienna proteſting againſt a ſeparate treaty with France, the war was renewed with apparent alacrity. The troops under Augereau had a conflict with thoſe of Mentz at Aſchaffenburg, on the 24th of November; and, on the 29th, Moreau, to whoſe exertions the French chiefly truſted for the humiliation of his imperial majeſty, re-commenced hoſtilities near the river Inn. The works of Waſſerburg were quickly forced by his men; but, on the 1ſt of December, he was leſs ſucceſsful in a battle with the archduke John, who advanced with three columns to attack him near Haag. The action was obſtinate, and the Auſtrians were repeatedly driven back; but the French were at length defeated. In an engagement at Roſenheim, on the ſame day, the corps of the prince de Condé acquired reputation by a diſplay of courage and firmneſs; and, on this occaſion, the prince's ſon and the duke d'Angoulême exerted themſelves with conſiderable effect in repelling the enemy. Encouraged by this ſucceſs, the archduke ſoon riſqued another conflict. On the 3d, he aſſaulted the poſt of Hohenlinden, memorable for the ſignature of the laſt convention. A heavy fall of ſnow and ſleet had ſo retarded his march, that only the central column had arrived at the place of deſtination at a time when all the diviſions ought to have been ready to act; and the left, under general Riſch, loſt its way. One diviſion of the French, conducted by Richepanſe, pierced between the left and the centre, reached the great road behind the centre, and aſſaulted the left flank and rear of that column, at a time when it had formed in front, and had commenced an attack. The Auſtrians fought for ſeveral hours with alertneſs and gallantry; but, their centre being repelled by the impetuoſity of the republicans, great confuſion enſued. Their left wing was alſo defeated; and the battle ſeemed to be completely decided in favour of the French, when a vigorous attempt was made by the right wing to wreſt from them the honours of victory. Grenier ſuſtained this unexpected charge with firmneſs; and, being well ſupported, threw his adverſaries into the utmoſt diſorder. The baffled troops retired towards the heights of Ramſau, with very heavy loſs; and general Kienmayer, being attacked on his march by a *corps* from Aerding, likewiſe ſuffered ſeverely in that retreat, to which he was driven by intelligence of the diſaſter that had befallen the main army. Above 10,000 of the Auſtrians, on this unfortunate day,

are ſuppoſed to have been killed or made priſoners: of the French about 3000 loſt their lives or were wounded. Klenau and the other Auſtrian generals are accuſed of having imprudently extended their lines, ſo as to give Moreau a deciſive advantage. The victorious republicans purſued the fugitives with little intermiſſion, and, after ſome conflicts which we need not ſpecify, took poſſeſſion of the city of Saltzburg. Priſoners, artillery, and various ſtores, daily accrued to them; and their progreſs menaced the emperor with the conqueſt of his capital.

Three other armies (the Gallo-Batavian army, that of the Griſons, and that of Italy) were in the mean time employed, though with leſs brilliant ſucceſs, in promoting the cauſe of the republic. Augereau gained an important advantage near Bamberg, on the day which was diſtinguiſhed by the battle of Hohenlinden; and, in other engagements, he prevailed over the imperial forces. Macdonald, defying the obſtacles which an Alpine winter preſented, paſſed from the country of the Griſons into the Valteline, drove the enemy before him, and opened a communication with the army of Italy. A part of the laſt-mentioned force, under Dupont, defeated the Auſtrians at Maſcaria; and, on the 26th of December, the republicans paſſed the Mincio after an obſtinate conteſt, though on the preceding day they had loſt many men in fruitleſs efforts for that purpoſe. Lieutenant-general Delmas, in attempting to paſs near Monzanbano, was expoſed to a ſevere attack; but he ſoon baffled his adverſaries, and croſſed the ſtream. Dupont, when he had effected a paſſage near Molino, was haraſſed by a charge ſo vigorous, that he would probably have been obliged to retire, if he had not been powerfully aided by Gazan with a freſh diviſion. On the following day, new advantages were obtained; and, in theſe conflicts, above 7000 Auſtrians were captured.

While extreme conſternation prevailed at Vienna, the archduke Charles repaired to the camp, to animate the troops to freſh exertions: but, inſtead of attacking the enemy, a due ſenſe of the inutility of further conteſt induced him to propoſe an armiſtice, which was concluded at Steyer on the 25th of December. Though the French had acted diſhonourably in diſmantling the towns which had been delivered to them merely as pledges by the convention of Hohenlinden, the emperor now conſented to the ſurrender of many other poſts, relying on the promiſe of reſtitution. Indeed, he was ſo humbled by the ſucceſs of the foe, that he declared himſelf ready to detach himſelf from his allies, and recede from his former determination of agreeing to no other than a general peace. The Britiſh court, in conſideration of the perilous predicament in which he ſtood, releaſed him from his engagements; and it is probable that a treaty between him and the French will ſoon be adjuſted at Luneville.

At this critical period, while the emperor was in danger of losing his territories, his formidable adversary, the chief consul, incurred the risque of a loss of life. On the 24th of December, when he was on his way to a place of theatrical amusement, a sudden explosion broke the windows of his carriage, killed several persons, and wounded others. This mischief was occasioned by a barrel, in which were combustibles and a kind of musquet, placed on a small carriage that was so disposed as to obstruct the passage through the street. In all governments, plots are sometimes fabricated to dupe the people; but that this was a real conspiracy is generally believed, and the Jacobins are supposed to have contrived it. Many individuals were apprehended on suspicion of being concerned in the plot; and some, after a judicial process, have been condemned to death: but we have not yet been informed of the execution of the sentence.

GERMANY.

Our communication with this country was supposed to be endangered when the king of Prussia, in the month of November, took possession of the bailiwic of Ritzebuttel, on pretence of an invasion of the rights of neutrality in the capture of an Embden ship by the English, by whom it had been carried into Cuxhaven, a port belonging to the Hamburghers. The senate, alarmed at the menaces of that prince, endeavoured to pacify him by procuring a restitution of the vessel; but he persisted in his intention of garrisoning Cuxhaven, though he promised to pay due respect to the trade and interests of the inhabitants. This prince is said to have promoted the late northern confederacy; but he disavows all views of hostility against Great-Britain. The sincerity of his declarations may perhaps be questioned by those who reflect on his friendly intercourse with our enemies.

RUSSIA.

Instigated by French counsels, impelled by caprice, or stimulated by ambition, the northern emperor demanded the island of Malta from the English, as he enjoyed the title of grand master of the knightly order. They refused to admit his pretensions; and their opposition to his will so inflamed his resentment, that he not only ordered an embargo to be laid (in November last) on all British ships in his harbours, but subjected the seamen to imprisonment and other severities of treatment.

Our court in vain remonstrated against these arbitrary proceedings: Paul declared that the embargo should be continued, and menaced his late allies with further marks of his displeasure. Taking advantage of the disgust of the courts of Copenhagen and Stockholm at our exercise of the right of naval search, he urged them to accede to an armed neutrality, into which they were too easily drawn. Having received intelligence of this league, his Britannic majesty

ordered, on the 14th of January, 1801, that all the ſhips of the three nations, which were already in his ports or ſhould afterwards arrive, ſhould be ſtrictly detained. To repreſs the eventual hoſtilities of the confederates, great exertions are neceſſary; but we may truſt to our naval ſtrength, and diſregard their efforts.

ITALY.

The only incidents of which we have occaſion to take notice under this head, relate to Tuſcany. After the battle of Marengo, the French had acquieſced in the neutrality of the duchy, without inſiſting on the diſſolution of that armed corps which the inhabitants had formed for the defence of the country. But, being deſirous of re-poſſeſſing that territory, they pretended that frequent outrages and depredations had been committed in the adjoining diſtricts by the Tuſcan *brigands* or robbers (as they ſtyled the armed corps above-mentioned), and deſired Sommariva, who acted as commander, to diſarm and diſmiſs them without delay. This inſolent requiſition not being followed by prompt compliance, general Brune ſent a detachment under Dupont to take poſſeſſion of the duchy. This officer entered Florence on the 15th of October, the Tuſcans not venturing to obſtruct his march. Brigadier Clement, ſoon after, perſuaded the Auſtrian troops at Leghorn to ſurrender that town to him, on his aſſenting to a convention for the continuance of the Tuſcan government, and the ſecurity of privileges and of property; but this agreement was not ſcrupulouſly obſerved, though the Britiſh merchants were fortunate in preſerving the greater part of their effects, by the convenience of the ſhips in the harbour. Strong parties were now ſent out againſt the armed Tuſcans at Arezzo and other places; and, as ſome reſiſtance was made by the latter, they were not ſubdued or diſperſed without bloodſhed.

GREECE.

It is not the leaſt remarkable circumſtance in the politics of the times, that two emperors, Paul and Selim, have concurred in the eſtabliſhment of a republic, conſiſting of Corfu, Cephalonia, and other iſlands near the Grecian coaſt. It is ſtyled the Ionian republic, and will enjoy a nominal independence under the protection of thoſe potentates.

EGYPT.

The French general Menou appears to be very actively and zealouſly employed in fortifying the chief Egyptian towns, in regulating both the civil and military departments, and improving the ſtate of the country. The grand vizir and ſir Sidney Smith have endeavoured, without effect, to draw him into an agreement for the evacuation of the territory. Unwilling to abandon a province which he conſiders as a ſcene of French glory, but which many will

juſtly denominate a ſcene of French barbarity, he provides for its retention with as much ſolicitude as if he had been the conqueror of the country. In a letter of the 1ſt of November, addreſſed to the chief conſul, he ſpeaks in high terms of his proceedings and regulations; but we muſt make allowance for the gaſconade and oſtentation for which his countrymen are notorious.

The troops that landed near Ferrol and threatened Cadiz, are ſaid to be deſtined for Egypt; and we hope that they will be more effectively employed than they were in the expedition to Spain. Without their aid, the Turks are unequal to the taſk of diſlodging the poſſeſſors of Grand-Cairo and Alexandria. If Egypt ſhould be ſubdued, our ally the grand ſignor may perhaps be induced to reſign his pretenſions to the Engliſh, under whoſe foſtering care it would ſoon become a very valuable province.

NORTH-AMERICA.

After a long courſe of diſpute not abſolutely hoſtile, the United States and the French republic have concluded a treaty of peace and commerce. The trade of both nations will be conducted on terms of equality; and it is particularly provided, that, if one of the two parties ſhould be at war, and the other at peace, there ſhall be no viſitation or ſearch of the ſhips of the neutral ſtate, when they ſail under convoy. In this inſtance, they mutually relinquiſh a claim without denying the exiſtence of the right; but, in the official report of the affairs of France, prepared by Regnier and his aſſociates, it is inſinuated that no ſuch right exiſts.

Having thus brought down the public affairs of the world in general, and of Great-Britain in particular, to the cloſe of the eighteenth century, we are inclined to offer ſome retroſpective as well as proſpective remarks which have occurred to us in the courſe of momentary reflexion. The century which has recently expired was diſtinguiſhed by a variety of memorable events in the earlier part of its progreſs; and, in the laſt ten years, it exhibited perhaps a more ſtupendous ſcene than the world ever before witneſſed. One circumſtance has attended it through the greater part of its courſe; it began with war, and it terminated with war. Hence ariſes a melancholy reflexion, that a practice which, it might be ſuppoſed, could only exiſt in the abſence of civiliſation, has been found to prevail in an age of refinement, when the arts and ſciences have been improved, when morality has been purified and ſublimated, and religion has been in a great meaſure diveſted of bigotry and ſuperſtition. If we were not witneſſes of this ſtrange degradation of the human underſtanding, we ſhould not be diſpoſed to give credit to an abſurdity ſo extravagant and ſo

diſgraceful. When we conſider, that

——tigris agit rabidâ cum tigride pacem
Perpetuam, ſævis inter se convenit urſis—

we may naturally expreſs our ſurpriſe, that beings of a ſuperior order, thoſe in whom is inherent a portion of ethereal fire, who, though infinitely inferior to the Deity, are removed far above the level of brutes, ſhould ſink into a courſe of action of which mere quadrupeds might feel the folly and the iniquity. But it is uſeleſs to argue on this ſubject; for the advocates of human ſlaughter, though they affect a high degree of religion, have no idea of its genuine dictates and its legitimate impreſſions, and are, in the ſtrict ſenſe of the phraſe, practical atheiſts. Such men impudently call it blaſphemy to declaim againſt war; but every man of ſenſe and humanity will maintain a contrary opinion.

That ſpirit of deſpotiſm which has ever waged war againſt human freedom and happineſs, exerted itſelf at the beginning of the eighteenth century in the perſon of Louis XIV. of France, who, not content with enſlaving his ſubjects, encroached on the liberties of other nations, and ſyſtematically invaded the general rights of mankind. But that haughty and unfeeling tyrant, near the cloſe of his reign, was deſervedly reduced to a ſtate of humiliation, ſo as to become an object of pity to contemporary princes. During his reign, however, the arts and ſciences received ſome encouragement, more indeed from his vanity than from his taſte or judgment. His death gave ſome repoſe to Europe; and the arts of peace revived. But, though his ſucceſſor was of a leſs ambitious and more pacific diſpoſition, he, on various pretences, embarked in unneceſſary wars. At one time he laboured to cruſh or depreſs the houſe of Auſtria; at another time, he provoked Great-Britain to a rupture by encroaching on her colonial poſſeſſions. The enterpriſing ſpirit of the great Frederic of Pruſſia kindled alſo, at different periods, the flames of war: but he endeavoured to make ſome atonement to his people by ſalutary reforms and uſeful inſtitutions, and by a general melioration of their ſtate. The czarina Catharine II. followed a ſimilar plan; and, while her ambition was prodigal of blood, her uncontrolled authority was, in many inſtances, ſubſervient to the public good. The concurrence of theſe two potentates with the devout Maria Thereſa in the partition of Poland reflected diſgrace on the age in which it took place, and on the neighbouring princes who could tamely ſuffer ſuch injuſtice to be exerciſed. From the affected regularity and ſolemnity in which the meaſure was enforced, it taught the nations of the world, that princes, in a refined age, could make a mockery of religion and humanity, of national independence and public privileges, and meaſure right by the rule of power, with a degree of iniquity equal to that of the

moſt ferocious chieftains of barbarous times. From this ſcene let us turn our eyes to France, which, at the acceſſion of Louis XVI, was in a ſtate favourable to the progreſs of freedom. That monarch was humane and well diſpoſed, and did not wiſh to act the part of a tyrant; and, under his auſpices, an example of reform might have been given with effect to the princes of the time, had not Great-Britain, forgetful of the principles which raiſed the houſe of Hanover to the throne, precipitated herſelf into a rupture with her colonial ſubjects. By aſſiſting the diſcontented Americans, the ill-adviſed Louis excited among his people a ſtrong paſſion for liberty; and, when he convoked the ſtates-general of the realm, the eagerneſs of the public to take advantage of the opportunity led to diſorder and confuſion, as perſons who have long been blind know not how to conduct themſelves at the firſt glare of light. The diſorder was promoted by ambitious demagogues, whoſe arts and intrigues kindled a flame which has not yet been extinguiſhed. The madneſs of the revolutionary leaders, not being ſuffered to exhauſt itſelf at home, diffuſed its effects over Europe; and the atrocities committed in France by a Jacobin faction under the maſk of liberty, damped the ardour of the friends of rational reform, furniſhed the rulers even of free nations with a pretence for ſtrengthening the hands of government, and produced a general inclination to ſubmit to new reſtraints, rather than riſque the horrors of confuſion and anarchy. Such ſeemed to be the ſtate of the public mind at the concluſion of the eighteenth century; and ſuch were the ill effects of a revolution, which, under judicious management, might have gradually operated to univerſal benefit.

In ſpeculating on the probable changes which may attend the progreſs of the nineteenth century, we do not flatter ourſelves or our poſterity with any ſignal or extraordinary improvement of the general condition of mankind. Refinement has not, in a long courſe of ages, produced the advantages which might have been expected to flow from it: why then ſhould we dream of any ſtriking change which it may effect within the ſmall compaſs of one hundred years? The improvement of the theory of religion and morality has not had a correſpondent influence on the practice. The increaſing profundity of ſcientific reſearch has not been ſo diffuſively beneficial as it might have been under proper direction. A more enlarged inſight into the legitimate arts of government, a greater portion of ſkill in the liberal and mechanical arts, a more intimate acquaintance with the means of augmenting the accommodations of ſociety, have not, we obſerve with deep but unavailing regret, been attended with the effects which ſuch attainments ſeemed calculated to produce. Why then ſhould we affect to prognoſticate a ſpeedy or a great improvement in

theſe reſpects? That ſome changes may occur in the period to which we allude, there is no reaſon to doubt: but we may diſpute the extent of their utility. When the agitations conſequent on the ſtorm of the French revolution ſhall have ſubſided, ſuch a ſpirit of moderation may ariſe, as may be favourable to political improvement. While the enormities of Jacobiniſm may have made ſo ſtrong an impreſſion on the minds of men, that the raſhneſs of indiſcriminate reform will meet with inſtant oppoſition, princes may alſo become more ſenſible than they have hitherto been of the expediency of promoting the happineſs of their ſubjects, not merely that of the higher claſſes, but of thoſe leſs elevated individuals who have as great a claim to juſtice and protection, to the comforts of life, and to that freedom of action which is not incompatible with the reſtraints of ſociety, as the counſellors of kings and the rulers of nations. Under the auſpices of patriotic and philanthropic ſovereigns, the ſciences which inform and enlighten, the arts which poliſh, the morality and devotion which purify mankind, may be more regularly purſued and more efficaciouſly cultivated. A more judicious ſyſtem of education, founded on numerous hints recently ſuggeſted, may improve both the minds and perſons of the riſing generation. The paſſions may be more ſtudiouſly repreſſed; the depravity which, we are taught to believe, has been inherent in human beings ſince the fall of their progenitor, may be more rigorouſly corrected. We might extend theſe remarks to a great length by ſpeaking of thoſe changes to which a ſanguine zeal might look forward; but ſuch ſpeculations are rather the offſpring of excurſive fancy, than the dictates of prophecy; and it may be ſaid, though the opinion may be thought to border on unneceſſary deſpondence, that the improvements which we have mentioned are merely poſſible, not probable. Thoſe paſſions which have rendered the greateſt part of the world, for ages, a ſcene of folly, iniquity, and vice, will perhaps continue to prevail over reaſon and prudence, over good ſenſe and philoſophy. Let every performer on the theatre of life endeavour to act the part allotted to him with judgment and propriety; and the ſtate of mankind will then be eſſentially improved: but, as ſuch endeavours, from the creation of the world to the preſent time, have by no means been general, we have little reaſon to indulge the pleaſing expectation. This, we allow, is not an enlivening or a flattering picture; but we earneſtly wiſh that the proſpect may brighten, and that the future ſcene may be arrayed in more attractive colours.

ERRATUM.

P. 221, l. 12. for *caſat* read *cavat*.

ALPHABETICAL INDEX

TO THE

AUTHORS' NAMES, and TITLES of BOOKS.

ACCOUNT of proceedings of governors of houſe of induſtry in Dublin, 238
Actor, Defence of the profeſſion of an, 478
Adams's Analyſis of horſemanſhip, 237
Addreſs to the public, concerning political opinions, 239
Agriculture, Recreations in, 233
Aikin's letters to his ſon, 283
——— tranſlation of ſelect eulogies of members of the French academy, 235
Algebra, Principles of, 447
America, North, Public affairs of, 589
Anacreon, Tranſlation of, 202
Analyſis of horſemanſhip, 237
Anderſon's Recreations in agriculture, 233
Animadverſions on the "Elements of Chriſtian theology," 311
Annales de Chymie, 514
Anneſley on the danger of a premature peace, 337
——— on the true cauſe of the preſent ſcarcity, 461
Anthology, Annual, 426
Anti-Calviniſt, 464
Anti-revolutionary thoughts of a revolutionary writer, 456
Apeleutherus, Curſory remarks on, 94
Apiarian, The general, 480
Architecture (Gothic), Eſſays on, 208
Argument concerning the Chriſtian religion, 466
Art de parler et d'écrire correctement la langue Françaiſe, 223
Arthy's Seaman's medical advocate, 104
Atcheſon's Report of a trial reſpecting condemnation of a ſhip in a neutral port, &c. 102
Attempt to explain Rom. V. 12, et ſeq. 97
——— to illuſtrate ſome of the prophecies, 330
Auckland (Lord)'s triumph, 473
Ava, Embaſſy to the kingdom of, 153

BAMPTON lecture, Richards's, 77
Baniſter's Synopſis of huſbandry, 327
Bardomachia, 476
Bartell's Obſervations upon the town of Cromer, 360
Battle of the bards, 475
Bent's Meteorological journal, 479
Bingley's tour round North Wales, 55
Biographical ſketches of Henrietta duchеſs of Orléans, and Louis of Bourbon prince of Condé, 237
Biſſet's Douglas, 116
Bogue's ſermon, 339
Bolland's Saint Paul at Athens, 106
Brand on the price of wheat, 458
Bridgman's Theſaurus juridicus, 217
Brown's Explanation of the Aſſembly's catechiſm, 469
Bryant on the Trojan war, Remarks on, 357
——— to the Britiſh Critic, 358
Burder's Directory for profitable employment of Chriſtian ſabbath, 117
Burns's works, 44, 300

CALVINISTIC doctrines of human depravity, &c. Vindication of, 100
Canton, Voyage to, 192
Carey's Latin proſody made eaſy, 442
Carr's ſermon, 341
Catechiſm, Explanation of the Aſſembly's, 469
Cayenne, Aimé's deportation to, 335
Cépède's Natural hiſtory of fiſhes, 530
Charge, Biſhop of Rocheſter's, 470
Chemiſtry, Annals of, 514
———, Elements of, 417
Chriſtian religion, Argument concerning the, 466
Chriſtianity, Principles of, 468
——— vindicated, 88
Chronological abridgement of univerſal hiſtory, 346
Churchill's tranſlation of Herder's Philoſophy of the hiſtory of man, 1, 169
Clapham's ſermon, 342

Cobb's Ramah Droog, 229
Coleridge's tranſlation of Schiller's Death of Wallenſtein, 175
——— of Schiller's Piccolomini, 175
Colquhoun on the police of the metropolis, 90
Confederacy (Helvetic), Hiſtory of the, 191
Congreſs at Raſtadt, 458
Conſiderations on Milton's early reading, 438
Corn, Conſiderations on the preſent high price of, 462
——- and Quakers, A few words on, 338
Correſpondence of Waſhington and Anderſon, Selections from the, 233
Coſſigni's voyage to Canton, 492
Courtier's Pleaſures of Solitude, 110
Cow-Pox, Obſervations on, 103
———, Reports of a ſeries of inoculations for, 104
Creaſe's Proceſs of varniſhing, 479
Crim. con. Death of, 473
Croft's Hints for hiſtory, 231
Cromer, Obſervations upon the town of, 360
Cullen's Noſology, Engliſh tranſlation of, 343

D'ALEMBERT's ſelect eulogies of members of the French academy, 235
Damerham South, Treatment of the poor in, 235
Dearneſs, not ſcarcity, 460
——— occaſioned by ſcarcity, 101
——— of proviſions, Thoughts on, 460
Defence of the profeſſion of an actor, 478
Degerando, Des ſignes et de l'art de penſer, 481
Denmark, Literature of, 572
Determination of the average depreſſion of the price of wheat in war, 458
De Valcourt, 231
Devil, On the moral and religious uſes of a, 216
Dialogues for children, 473
Dibdin's Jew and doctor, 227
Diet and regimen, Lectures on, 291
Directory for profitable employment of Chriſtian ſabbath, 117
Diſh of hodge podge, 348
Divine origin of prophecy, 77
Douglas, 116
DRAMATIC.
Death of Wallenſtein, 175
Jew and doctor, 227
Lawyers, 351
DRAMATIC.
Piccolomini, The, 175
Ramah Droog, 229
Speed the plough, 349
Streanſhall Abbey, 112
Syſtematic, 115
Theodora, 111
Dunning on the cow-pox, 103
Dunſter's Conſiderations on Milton's early reading, 438

EASTON's Human longevity, 238
Ebn Haukal's Oriental geography, 377
Education, Elements of a polite, 344
——— founded upon principles, 221
Edwards's Means of providing againſt the diſtreſs apprehended from ſcarcity, 461
Egypt, Memoirs relative to, 31
———, Public affairs of, 588
Elegance, amuſement, and utility, 479
Elements of chemiſtry, 417
——— of Chriſtian theology, Animadverſions on the, 311
Embaſſy to the kingdom of Ava, 153
——— to the court of the Teſhoo Lama, 252
Enfield's Speaker, New introduction to, 345
Epiſtle from La Fayette to Waſhington, 108
——— in rhyme to M. G. Lewis, 226
——— to Peter Pindar, 474
Eſſays, political, economical, and philoſophical, 143
Eulogies (Select) of members of the French academy, 235
Euripides's Hecuba, 241
Evidences (Summary of the principal) for the truth and divine origin of the Chriſtian revelation, 462
Experimental inquiries concerning the lateral communication of motion in fluids, 343
Expoſtulation addreſſed to the Britiſh Critic, 358
Extract of journal of a tour from London through the Highlands of Scotland, &c. 119

FABER's ſermons, 99
Fabliaux, or tales of the 12th and 13th centuries, 413
Falconer's Remarks on Bryant on the Trojan war, 357
Family ſermons, 215
Fellowes's Anti-Calviniſt, 464
Feltham's Tour through the iſle of Man, 333
Female ſex, Reflections on the preſent condition of the, 453

Ferguſon, Trial of Mr. 101
Fever, Outline of the hiſtory and cure of, 395
Fiſhes, Natural hiſtory of, 530
Fitzmaurice, 351
Florian's Guide to the ſtudy of the hiſtory of England, 223
Force of prejudice, 231
Foreign Literature. See LITERATURE.
France, Literature of, 545
——, Public Affairs of, 583
French grammar, Henry's, 472
——————, Lévizac's, 223
Frend's Animadverſions on the "Elements of Chriſtian theology," 311
—— Principles of algebra, 447

GENERAL apiarian, 480
Geography, Oriental, 377
Geological eſſays, 274
Georgics of Virgil, Tranſlation of, 10
Germany, Literature of, 565
——, Public affairs of, 587
Gibſon's Streanſhall abbey, 112
Girvin on the exportation of rock-ſalt to Scotland, 117
Gothic architecture, Eſſays on, 208
Grammar, French, 223, 472
——————, Italian, 472
Gray's poems, 347
Great Britain, Public affairs of, 575
Greece, Hiſtory of, 83
——, Public affairs of, 588
Gregory's ſelections from Cheſterfield's letters, 344
Guide from the Engliſh language to the French, 472
—— to the ſtudy of the hiſtory of England, 223
Guppy (Mrs.)'s Dialogues for children, 473

HALDANE's addreſs to the public, 239
Harmony, Introduction to, 133
Harrington's New experiments and obſervations upon heat, 221
Harwood's Hiſtory of the life of Jeſus Chriſt, 120
Hayward's ſermon, 96
Heat, New experiments and obſervations upon, 221
Hecuba (The) of Euripides, 241
Helvetic confederacy, Hiſtory of the, 191
Henvill's Brief ſtatement of facts, 235
——— ſermons, 213
Herder's Philoſophy of the hiſtory of man, 1, 169
Highland ſociety of Scotland, Prize eſſays and tranſactions of the, 185
Hill's Plea for union, 120
Hill's ſecond tour from London through the Highlands of Scotland, &c. 119
—Remarks on ditto, 120
Hindley's Perſian lyrics, 265, 387
Hints for hiſtory, reſpecting the attempt on the king's life, 231
Hiſtorical deſcription of ancient and modern Rome, 404
Hiſtory, Chronological abridgement of univerſal, 346
——— of England, Guide to the ſtudy of the, 223
——— of Greece, 83
——— of the Helvetic confederacy, 191
——— of the life of Jeſus Chriſt, 120
——— of man, Outlines of a philoſophy of the, 1, 169
———, Natural of fiſhes, 530
Holland, Literature of, 568
Hop-plantations, State of the, 359
Horne's View of the neceſſity and truth of the Chriſtian revelation, 217
Horſemanſhip, Analyſis of, 237
Houſe of induſtry in Dublin, Proceedings of the governors of, 238
Howard's Few words on corn and Quakers, 338
Human longevity, 238
Hunt's Word on the times, 461
Huſbandry, Synopſis of, 327

IFFLAND's Lawyers, 351
Imaginary philoſopher, 115
Impolicy of prohibiting the exportation of rock-ſalt to Scotland, 117
Infidel ſocieties in the metropolis, Riſe and diſſolution of, 355
Inoculations for the cow-pox, Reports of, 104
Inſtitute, Memoirs of the National, 501
Introduction to harmony, 133
———————— (New) to Enfield's Speaker, 345
Iriſh purſuits of literature, 358
Iſaac's General apiarian, 480
Italian grammar, Veneroni's, 472
Italy, Public affairs of, 588
Itinerancy and non-conformity of the vicar of Charles, Letter on the, 469

JACKSON's Outline of the hiſtory and cure of fever, 395
Jacquin's Elements of chemiſtry, 417
James's Providence diſplayed, 478
Jamieſon's Remarks on Rowland Hill's Journal, 120
Jeſus Chriſt, Hiſtory of the life of, 120
Jew and doctor, 227
Johnſton's New introduction to Enfield's Speaker, 345

Johnſtone on madneſs, 219
Journal of a route to Nagpore, 211
——— of a voyage from Madras to Columbo, 319
——— (Meteorological) of the year 1799, 479
Juliania, 346
Juriſprudence, Medical, 220

KENDAL's Stories of Senex, 346
King's Munimenta antiqua, 361
Kirwan's Geological eſſays, 274
Kotzebue's Sufferings of the Family of Ortenberg, 352

LABILLARDIERE's Report of the voyage for the diſcovery of La Pérouſe, 487
La Croix on the doctrine of fluxions, 540
Lancaſter's ſermon, 341
Latham's Myſtery, 116
Latin proſody made eaſy, 442
Lawyers, The, 351
Leckie's Journal of a route to Nagpore, 211
Lectures on diet and regimen, 291
Le Grand's fabliaux, 413
Letter from French biſhops to Pius VI. 356
——— to lord Somerville, 232
Letters from a father to his ſon, 283
Levizac's Art de parler et d'écrire correctement la langue Françaiſe, 223
——— Traité des ſons de la langue Françaiſe, 223
Leyceſter on the moral and religious uſes of a devil, 216
——— on the political and moral uſes of an evil ſpirit, 216
Life of Rolla, 472
LITERATURE (FOREIGN).
Denmark, 572
France, 545
Germany, 565
Holland, 568
Spain, 574
Switzerland, 572
Liturgy of the church of England explained, 468
London (Biſhop of)'s Summary of the principal evidences for the truth and divine origin of the Chriſtian revelation, 462
Longevity, Human, 238
Ludger's tranſlation of "the Lawyers," 351
Lyrics, Perſian, 265, 387

MAKENZIE's Prize eſſays and tranſactions of the Highland ſociety of Scotland, 185
Madneſs, Eſſay on, 219
Man, Tour through the iſle of, 333
Maſters and ſervants, Reflections on the relative ſituations of, 234
Mavor's abridgement of Plutarch's Lives, 344
Medical advocate, The ſeaman's, 104
——— department of naval ſervice, Memorials on the, 343
——— juriſprudence, 220
Medicina nautica, 164
Mémoires de l'Inſtitut National, 501
Memoirs of Dick, the little poney, 346
——— relative to Egypt, 31
Memorials on the medical department of naval ſervice, 343
Meteorological journal of the year 1799, 479
Metropolis, Treatiſe on the police of the, 90
Milton's early reading, Conſiderations on, 438
Mince pye, The, 225
Moderation is ſalvation, 460
Moore's Tranſlation of Anacreon, 202
Morals, Remarks on the theory of, 24
Morton's Speed the plough, 349
Moſeley's edition of Brown's Explanation of the Aſſembly's catechiſm, 469
Munimenta antiqua, 361
Myſtery, 116

NAGPORE, Journal of a route to, 211
Napleton's ſermons, 217
Narrative of J. J. J. Aimé's deportation to Cayenne, 335
Natural hiſtory of fiſhes, 530
Navigation (inland), Political economy of, 86
Neighbourhood, The, 230
Non-reſidence, tithes, &c. Thoughts on, 236
North America, Public affairs of, 589
Northmore, Of education founded upon principles, 221
Noſology (Cullen's) tranſlated, 343
NOVELS, ROMANCES, &c.
De Valcourt, 231
Douglas, 116
Fitzmaurice, 351
Force of prejudice, 231
Juliania, 346
Life of Rolla, 472
Memoirs of Dick, the little poney, 346
Myſtery, 116
Neighbourhood, 230
Selina, 230
Stories of Senex, 346
Sufferings of the family of Ortenberg, 352

ORIENTAL geography, 377
Ouſeley's Oriental geography, 377
Outline of the hiſtory and cure of fever, 395
Outlines of a philoſophy of the hiſtory of man, 1, 169

PAUL (Saint) at Athens, 106
Payne's Hiſtory of Greece, 83
Peace, Obſervations on the danger of a premature, 337
Peacock (Lucy)'s tranſlation of La Croze's chronological abridgement of univerſal hiſtory, 346
Pearſon on the theory of morals, 24
——'s ſermon, 96
Pérouſe (La), Voyage for the diſcovery of, 491
Perſian lyrics, 265, 387
Peter and Æſop, 475
—— Pindar, Epiſtle to, 474
——'s Lord Auckland's triumph, 473
Phillips's Theatrum poëtarum Anglicanorum, 70
Philoſophical tranſactions of the Royal Society of London, for 1800, 121
Philoſophy of the hiſtory of man, Outlines of a, 1, 169
Piccolomini, The, 175
Plan of proceeding, 479
Planta's Hiſtory of the Helvetic confederacy, 191
Plea for union, 120
Pleaſures of ſolitude, 110
Plutarch's Lives abridged, 344
POETRY.
Anacreon, Tranſlation of, 202
Anthology, Annual, 426
Bardomachia, 476
Battle of the bards, 475
Burns's works, 44, 300
Death of Wallenſtein, 175
Diſh of hodge podge, 348
Epiſtle from La Fayette to Waſhington, 108
—— to M. G. Lewis, 226
—— to Peter Pindar, 474
Fabliaux, or tales of the 12th and 13th centuries, 413
Gray's poems, 347
Lord Auckland's triumph, 475
Mince pye, 223
Peter and Æſop, 475
Piccolomini, The, 175
Pleaſures of ſolitude, 110
Reflection, 347
Saint Paul at Athens, 106
Sans-culotides, 224
Streanſhall abbey, 112
Theodora, 111
Virgil's Georgics, 10
Police of the metropolis, Treatiſe on the, 90
Political economy of inland navigation, 86
Polwhele on the itinerancy and nonconformity of the vicar of Charles, 469
Poor, Report of the ſtate and progreſs of the inſtitution for the relief of the, 480
Porſon's edition of the Hecuba of Euripides, 241
Principles of algebra, 447
—— of Chriſtianity, 468
Prize eſſays and tranſactions of the Highland ſociety of Scotland, 185
Prophecies, Attempt to illuſtrate ſome of the, 330
Prophecy, Divine origin of, 77
Proſody (Latin) made eaſy, 442
Proſtitution, Thoughts on means of alleviating the miſeries attendant on, 118
Providence diſplayed, 478
PUBLIC AFFAIRS of Egypt, 588
France, 583
Germany, 587
Great Britain, 575
Greece, 588
Italy, 588
Ruſſia, 587
N. America, 589
Punctuation, Eſſay on, 360
Purſuits of literature, Iriſh, 358

QUESTION of ſcarcity plainly ſtated, 116.

RAMAH Droog, 229
Randall's State of the hop-plantations, 359
Raſtadt, Congreſs at, 458
Recreations in agriculture, 233
Reflection, 347
Reflections on the relative ſituations of maſters and ſervants, 234
Reid's Riſe and diſſolution of the infidel ſocieties in the metropolis, 355
Rélation du voyage à la recherche de La Pérouſe, 487
Remarks on Apeleutherus, 94
—— on the theory of morals, 24
Renwick on the medical department of naval ſerv ce, 343
Report of ſtate and progreſs of inſtitution for relief of poor, 480
—— of ſelect committee of houſe of commons, on courts of juſtice, 93
—— of a trial reſpecting condemnation of a ſhip in a neutral port, &c. 102

Reports of a ſeries of inoculations for the cow pox, 104
Revelation, Summary of the principal evidences for the truth and divine origin of the Chriſtian, 462
———, View of the neceſſity and truth of the Chriſtian, 217
Reviewers' anſwers to correſpondents, 480
Richards's Divine origin of prophecy, 77
Richardſon's ſhort-hand, 354
Riddoch's ſermons, 432
Riſe and diſſolution of the infidel ſocieties in the metropolis, 355
Roberts's Chriſtianity vindicated, 88
Rocheſter (Biſhop of)'s charge, 470
Rock-ſalt (Impolicy of prohibiting the exportation of) to Scotland, 117
Rolla, Life of, 472
Romans V. 12, et ſeq. Attempt to explain, 97
Rome, Hiſtorical deſcription of ancient and modern, 404
Rumford (Count)'s eſſays, 143
Ruſſia, Public affairs of, 587

SABBATH, Directory for profitable employment of the Chriſtian, 117
Salmon's Deſcription of ancient and modern Rome, 404
Sans-culotides, 224
Scarcity, Means of providing againſt the diſtreſs apprehended from, 461
——— (Queſtion of) plainly ſtated, 116
———, Strictures on the true cauſe of the preſent, 461
Scattered thoughts, 480
Schiller's Death of Wallenſtein, 175
——— Piccolomini, 175
School-room party, out of ſchool-hours, 345
Seaman's medical advocate, 104
Seamen, Eſſay on the diſeaſes of, 164
Selections from the correſpondence of general Waſhington and J. Anderſon, 223
Selina, 230
Selkirk, Adventures of Alexander, 478
SERMON by Bogue, 339
Carr, 341
Clapham, 342
Hayward, 96
Lancaſter, 341
Pearſon, 96
Turner, 340
Uvedale, 341
SERMONS by Faber, 99
Henvill, 213
Napleton, 217
Riddoch, 432
Whitaker, 215
Seyer's Principles of Chriſtianity, 468
Sheffield (Lord) on the export of wool from Great Britain to Ireland, 360
Shield's Introduction to harmony, 133
Short-hand, New ſyſtem of, 354
Signes (Des) et de l' art de penſer, 481
Sketches (Biographical) of Henrietta ducheſs of Orléans, and Louis of Bourbon prince of Condé, 237
Soame's epiſtle to M. G. Lewis, 226
Solitude, Pleaſures of, 110
Sotheby's tranſlation of Virgil's Georgics, 10
Soup-ſociety in Clerkenwell, Account of the, 118
Spain, Literature of, 574
Speed the plough, 349
Spirit (evil), On the political and moral uſes of an, 216
Stackhouſe on punctuation, 360
Statement of facts, relative to the treatment of the poor in Damerham South, 235
Stories of Senex, 346
Story of an injured gentleman, 94
Streanſhall abbey, 112
Strictures on the true cauſe of the preſent ſcarcity, 461
Sufferings of the family of Ortenberg, 352
Switzerland and Italy, Journey to, 525
———, Literature of, 572
Symes's Account of an embaſſy to the kingdom of Ava, 153
Synoplis of huſbandry, 327
Syſtematic, The, 115

TACTICS, Obſervations on the Britiſh ſyſtem of, 235
Tatham's Political economy of inland navigation, 86
Terence, Account of the life and writings of, 223
Teſhoo Lama, Embaſſy to the court of the, 254
Thanet, Trial of lord, 101
Theatrum poëtarum Anglicanorum, 70
Theodora, 111
Theory of morals, Remarks on the, 24
Theſaurus juridicus, 217
Thoughts on non-reſidence, tithes, &c. 236
——— (Anti-revolutionary) of a revolutionary writer, 456
———, Scattered, 480
Toplady's Liturgy of the church of Eng and explained, 468
Tour round North Wales, 55
—— through the Highlands of Scotland, &c. 119.—Remarks on ditto, 120
—— through the iſle of Man, 333

Traité des ſons de la langue Françaiſe, 223
Tranſactions (Philoſophical) of the Royal Society of London, for 1800, 121
Trial of lord Thanet and Mr. Ferguſon, 101
Trotter's Medicina nautica, 164
Troy, Remarks on ſome paſſages of Mr. Bryant reſpecting the war of, 357
Turner's Account of an embaſſy to the Teſhoo Lama, 254
——— ſermon, 340

UNION, Plea for, 120
Uvedale's ſermon, 341

VACCINATION, Obſervations on, 103
Varniſhing, Proceſs of, 479
Veneroni's Italian grammar, 472
Venturi on the lateral communication of motion in fluids, 343
Vernet's Argument concerning the Chriſtian religion, 466
View of the neceſſity and truth of the Chriſtian revelation, 217
Vindication of the Calviniſtic doctrines of human depravity, &c. 100
Virgil's Georgics, tranſlation of, 10
Voyage from Madras to Columbo, 319
—— en Suiſſe et en Italie, 525
——— for the diſcovery of La Pérouſe, 487
——— to Canton, 492

WAKEFIELD (Mrs.)'s Reflections on the preſent condition of the female ſex, 453
Wales, Tour round North, 55
Walk through ſome of the weſtern counties of England, 421
Walker on the neceſſity for contracting cavities between the venous trunks and ventricles of the heart, 220
Warner's Walk through ſome of the weſtern counties, 421
Way's tranſlation of Le Grand's fabliaux, 413
Wheat, Average depreſſion of the price of, 458
Whitaker's Family ſermons, 215
White's Voyage from Madras to Columbo, 319
Will's tranſlation of the "Sufferings of the family of Ortenberg," 352
Williams's Fitzmaurice, 351
Williams's Vindication of the Calviniſtic doctrines of human depravity, &c. 100
Willich's Lectures on diet and regimen, 291
Woodville's reports of inoculations for the cow-pox, 104
Wool (Obſervations on the objections to the export of) from Great Britain to Ireland, 360
Word (A) on the times, to thoſe who buy, 461

YOUNG's Queſtion of ſcarcity plainly ſtated, 116

ZOTTI's edition of Veneroni's Italian grammar, 472
Zouch's Attempt to illuſtrate ſome of the prophecies, 330

THE END OF THE THIRTIETH VOLUME.

S. HAMILTON,
Falcon-Court, Fleet-Street, London.